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HANDBOOK OF COMPOSITION

A COMPENDIUM OF RULES

REGARDING

GOOD ENGLISH, GRAMMAR,
SENTENCE STRUCTURE, PARAGRAPHING,
MANUSCRIPT ARRANGEMENT,
PUNCTUATION, SPELLING,
ESSAY WRITING, AND
LETTER WRITING

BY

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1A4

I WILL not be negligent to put you always in remembrance of these things, though ye know them. Yea, I think it meet to stir you up by putting you in remembrance.

—II PETER i. 12, 13.

PREFACE

THIS manual is designed for two uses. It may be used, first, by students of composition for reference, at the direction of the instructor, in case of errors in themes. Second, it may be used for independent reference by persons who have writing of any kind to do and who want occasional information on matters of good usage, grammar, spelling, punctuation, paragraphing, manuscript-arrangement, or letter-writing.

The aim of the book is not scientific, but practical. The purpose is to make clear the rules in regard to which many people make mistakes. No material has been put into the book for the sake of formal completeness. Many statements that would be essential to a treatise designed to exhaust the subjects here discussed (a treatise, for instance, on grammar, or composition-structure, or punctuation) have been omitted because they concern matters about which the persons who may use the book do not need to be told. In the knowledge and the observance of the rules fixed by good usage and suggested by common sense for the expression of thoughts in English and the representation of them on paper, there are many widely prevalent deficiencies, some natural enough, some very odd, but all shared by many people. The purpose of this manual is simply to help correct some of these deficiencies.

Some of the rules in this book, making no mention of exceptions, modifications, or allowable alternatives, may perhaps be charged with being dogmatic. They *are* dogmatic — purposely so. Suppose a youth, astray and confused in a maze of city streets, asks the way to a certain place. If one enumerates to him the several possible routes, with comments and admonitions and cautions about each, he will probably continue astray and confused. If one sends him peremptorily on one route, not mentioning permissible deviations or equally good alternative ways, the

chance is much greater that he will reach his destination. Likewise, the erring composer of anarchic discourse can best be set right by concise and simple directions. This is one reason for the stringency of some of the rules. There is another reason; let me use another parable in explaining it. A student of piano-playing is held rigidly, during the early period of his study, to certain rules of finger movement. Those rules are sometimes varied or ignored by musicians. But the student, in order to progress in the art, must for a certain time treat the rules as stringent and invariable; the variations and exceptions are studied only at a later stage of his progress. So, in acquiring skill in the art of composition, it is necessary for most students to observe rigidly and invariably rules to which masters of the art make exceptions. I believe that Rules 63, 69, 78, 98, 99, 112, and 115, for example, should be so treated by most apprentices in composition.

A word about the literary obligations I have incurred. So far as concerns my indebtedness to that great common fund of grammatical and rhetorical doctrine on which he who will may draw, it may truly be said of me, as it has been said of Homer,

> "What he thought he might require
> He went and took."

To individual authors I may owe debts of which I am not aware; for when a man has accumulated a store of thoughts, some from individual writers, some from many writers in common, and some, perhaps, from his own psychic processes, he inevitably forgets the source of many elements of the mass. I know, however, that my thanks are due to Professors Adams Sherman Hill, William Dwight Whitney, Alphonso G. Newcomer, John Duncan Quackenbos, Fred Newton Scott, and Joseph Villiers Denney, for a number of ideas suggested by my acquaintance with their works.

I gratefully acknowledge here my obligation to Professor Frank Gaylord Hubbard, of the University of Wisconsin, and to Miss Rose M. Kavana, of the Medill High School in Chicago, who gave me much acute and valuable criticism

during the preparation of the manuscript; and to several gentlemen (unknown to me) who, at the instance of the publishers, suggested some much-needed emendations before the book went to press, and also during its passage through the press. Though the book is probably not what Captain Costigan would call a "meritorious performance," it is in many respects nearer that character than it would be but for the generous aid of these known and unknown counselors.

E. C. W.

MADISON, WISCONSIN,
October 15, 1907.

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HANDBOOK OF COMPOSITION

I. THE COMPOSITION OF DISCOURSE

The Standard of Good Usage

1. English discourse employing words generally approved by good usage, and employing them in the senses and in the grammatical functions and combinations generally approved by good usage, is called good English. English discourse employing words not generally approved by good usage, or employing words in senses and in grammatical functions and combinations not generally approved by good usage, is called bad English. By *good usage* is meant the usage generally observed in the writings of the best English authors and in the speech of well-educated people.

Good usage defined

2. Regarding questions of good or bad English, there are several common errors:

Mistaken standards:

(*a*) The supposition that an expression current in common conversation is thereby proved to be good English. If currency in common conversation were a valid test, such expressions as "ain't," "I says," "them fellows," "he laid down," "you hadn't ought," and "has went" would be good English.

Colloquial usage

(*b*) The supposition that the usage of a number of well-educated persons with whom one is acquainted proves whether or not an expression is good English. It should be remembered that (as the foregoing definition of *good usage* implies) the true standard is the

Limited usage

usage in which the *majority* of well-educated people, including the writers of undisputed literary merit, agree; not the usage of a relatively small number of well-educated persons. Some well-educated people say "he don't" and "proven"; but these expressions are none the less bad English, for the majority of well-educated people, including the writers of good literature, reject them.

Newspaper usage

(*c*) The supposition that an expression current in the newspapers is thereby proved to be good English. Our newspapers are almost universally characterized by provincial and vulgar diction. (There are a few honorable exceptions.) An expression like "Rev. Clifford has proven himself a hustler" is no more justified by the wide currency of similar expressions in the newspapers than "has went" is justified by wide currency in conversation. General newspaper usage has nothing whatever to do with good English usage. (Cf. Rule 16 and the note to Rule 129.)

The usage of recent fiction

(*d*) The supposition that the employment of an expression by recent writers of popular fiction proves that the expression is good English. A writer does not, merely by being popular, take rank among the best English authors; such rank can be taken only upon the general judgment of scholars and critics, as well as of the reading public, and only after that judgment has endured a sufficient length of time to become established. The student will do well to rely for indications of what is good usage, not on recent writers, about whose literary rank he may make mistakes, but on authors of whose high rank he is sure, — such authors as Addison, Irving, Burke, Macaulay, De Quincey, Mill, Matthew Arnold, Ruskin, Emerson, Holmes, Dickens, Thackeray, George Eliot, Hawthorne, Poe, Stevenson. But, in consulting even such authors as these, he should beware of another common error regarding good usage; *viz.*, —

(*e*) The supposition that a single instance of the use of a word by one of the best English authors proves the word to be good English. A word must be shown to be in *general* use among such authors, in order to be proved good English. The word "vim" can be found in the works of Stevenson, but it is nevertheless bad English. Isolated instances not decisive

3. From the foregoing considerations it follows that in order to know by direct evidence what is good and what is bad English, one must have a wide acquaintance with English literature and a wide — in fact, an international — acquaintance with people of the best education. Lacking such acquaintance, one must look to trustworthy books on grammar, rhetoric, composition, and other subjects involving discussion of good usage, and to good dictionaries. Means of learning good usage

NOTE. — Regarding the use of a dictionary for determining questions of good or bad English, a mistaken idea is often held, — *viz.*, the supposition that the inclusion of a word in a dictionary proves the word to be good English. In consulting a dictionary for the standing of a word, one ought to observe, not merely whether the word is in the dictionary, but whether, being there, it is marked Obsolete, Slang, Low, Vulgar, Local, or Colloquial. If it is so marked, it is either bad English or English not in good literary standing. Inclusion of a word in a dictionary is not decisive

Diction

Improprieties and Barbarisms

4. Avoid the vulgarism of using a word to fulfill the office of a part of speech to which it does not belong. (Such misuse of a word is called an impropriety.) Remember that — Error regarding parts of speech

(*a*) *Suicide*, *suspicion*, *wire*, and *clerk* are nouns, not verbs. (*b*) *Days*, *nights*, *mornings*, *evenings*, *afternoons*, *times*, and *places*, are nouns, not adverbs. (*c*) *Plenty* is a noun, not an adjective or an adverb (see the Glossary).

(*d*) *Them* is a pronoun, not an adjective; to say "them boys" is like saying "him boy." (*e*) *Combine*, *invite*, *steal*, and *try* are verbs, not nouns. (*f*) *Canine*, *equine*, *feline*, *human*, *military*, *vocal*, and *drunk* are adjectives, not nouns. (*g*) *Real*, *some*, *this*, *that* (see these four words in the Glossary), *any*, *good*, and *considerable* are adjectives, not adverbs; and in modern prose *friendly* and *cowardly* are adjectives, not adverbs. (*h*) *Down* is an adverb, not a verb (see the Glossary). (*i*) *Per cent.* is an adverb phrase, not a noun (see the Glossary). (*j*) *Near by* is an adverb phrase, not an adjective (see the Glossary).

Unauthorized formations

5. The use of current words coined without authority from words in good standing is a violation of good usage.

Such unauthorized formations are called barbarisms. Among them are "enthuse" (see the Glossary), "burglarize," "jell" (for the verb *to jelly*), "electrocute," "electrocution," "tasty" (for *tasteful*), "homey" (for *homelike*), "newsy," "musicianly," "complected" (see the Glossary), "preventative" (for *preventive*), "illy" (for *ill*), "overly (see the Glossary), "cablegram" (say *telegram*, *cable telegram*, or *cable message*); and the contractions "photo," "auto," "phone," "gent," "pants," "most" (for *almost*), and "way" (for *away*).

Analogy not decisive

NOTE. — The standing of a word depends, not on the nature of its formation, but solely on its acceptance or non-acceptance by good usage (see Rules 1 and 2). "Baseballist" and "cheesery" are bad English, though they are formed after the analogy of *pianist* and *creamery*, which are good English.

Extemporized formations

6. Except as a humorous device, do not use words of your own coining, without ascertaining from a dictionary whether they are authorized. (See the note to Rule 3.)

Contractions

Inappropriate in formal composition

7. The contractions *don't*, *isn't*, *haven't*, etc., are not appropriate in formal composition. They are proper in conversation and in composition of a colloquial style.

Misuses of Pronouns

8. In formal composition, avoid using *you* indefinitely; use, rather, the passive voice or the pronoun *one*. Indefinite *you*

Crude: You should not use *they* indefinitely.
Right: *They* should not be used indefinitely; [or] One should not use *they* indefinitely.

9. Avoid using *they* indefinitely; use the passive voice, or recast the sentence otherwise. Indefinite *they*

Crude: They make bricks in Fostoria.
Right: Bricks are made in Fostoria.

Crude: They had a collision on the electric road.
Right: There was a collision; [or] A collision occurred.

Crude: They don't have red-birds in Wisconsin, do they?
Right: There are no red-birds in Wisconsin, are there? [or] Red-birds are not found in Wisconsin, are they?

10. Except in impersonal expressions, such as *it rains, it seems, it is cold,* do not use *it* without antecedent; recast the sentence. Indefinite *it*

Crude: In the notice on the bulletin board it says the drill is held at four.
Right: The notice on the bulletin board says the drill is held at four.

Crude: In Garland's *Among the Corn Rows* it gives a description of life among the farmers.
Right: Garland's *Among the Corn Rows* gives a description, etc.; [or] In Garland's *Among the Corn Rows* there is a description, etc.

Crude: Does it say "Fair Oaks" on that car?
Right: Is that car marked "Fair Oaks"?

11. The use of a demonstrative adjective (especially *that* or *those*) that seems to anticipate a relative clause but is not completed by such a clause is a colloquialism not proper in formal composition. Indefinite *that* and *those*

Wrong: I observed that the building was one of those rambling old mansions.
Right: I observed that the building was a rambling old mansion; [or] ··· one of those rambling old mansions that one often sees in New England towns.

Misuse of intensives

12. Do not use the intensive pronouns *myself, himself, yourself*, etc., unless emphasis is necessary; use the simple personal pronouns *I, he, you*, etc.

Wrong: My wife and myself will go.
Right: My wife and I will go.
Wrong: This is for you and myself.
Right: This is for you and me.

"Yourself and guests"

13. Especially avoid expressions like "yourself and guests," "myself and brother." Say "you and your guests," "my brother and I."

Rhetorical Ornament

Triteness

Overworked formulas

14. Avoid such trite rhetorical expressions as the following:

favor with a selection
render a vocal solo
rendition
discourse sweet music
repast
do justice to a dinner
sought his downy couch
wended their way
enjoyable
in a pleasing manner
untiring efforts
all in all
some one has said
specimen of humanity
had the privilege
replete with interest
those present
in evidence
last but not least
abreast of the times
was the recipient of
everything went along nicely
the student body
doomed to disappointment
was an impressive sight
made a pretty picture
completed the scene
nestled among the hills *or* among the trees
like sentinels guarding
all nature seemed
all nature clothed in a robe
each and every
on this particular day

long-felt want	the proud possessor
it seems (in narrative)	in touch with
fair maidens	social function
along —— lines (*e.g.*, along agricultural lines)	waited in breathless suspense
along the line of	order out of chaos
along these lines	those with whom we come in contact
as luck would have it	imbued with

Literary ornament

NOTE. — Literary ornament is good when it is attractive and appropriate. But the writer who uses such expressions as those in the foregoing list or those mentioned in Rule 15 uses ornament that is displeasing; and the writer who drags such expressions into a matter-of-fact context, where any ornament is incongruous, commits a double offense against good taste.

Hackneyed quotations, allusions, and proverbs

15. Avoid hackneyed quotations, literary allusions, and proverbs, such as the following:

Method in his madness
Monarch of all I survey
Sadder but wiser
Cupid has been busy
Variety is the spice of life
The best laid plans of mice and men, etc.
All work and no play, etc.
Never put off till to-morrow, etc.
Make hay while the sun shines
All is not gold, etc.
When ignorance is bliss, etc.
Music hath charms, etc.

Newspaper mannerisms:

16. Obvious effort to decorate one's style with striking phraseology is a hackneyed newspaper mannerism (cf. Rule 2 *c*). This effort appears particularly in the following objectionable practices:

Nicknames of States and cities

(*a*) The tediously habitual designation of States and cities by their nicknames (*e.g.*, "the Buckeye State," "the Sunflower State," "the Gopher State," "the Cream City," etc.). This practice becomes especially objection-

able when the nickname is obtruded, as it often is, at a place where no name at all is needed; *e.g.*,

Vulgar: He arrived in Boston yesterday. Many citizens *of the Hub* were gathered to meet him.
Right: He arrived in Boston yesterday. Many citizens were gathered to meet him.

Current newspaper rhetoric

(*b*) The regular employment of miscellaneous current verbal ornaments, such as "fatal affray," "fistic encounter," "struggling mass of humanity," "scantily attired," "knights of the pen" (for *reporters*), "the officiating clergyman," "tied the knot," "pachyderm" (for *elephant*), "equines" (for *horses*), "canines" (for *dogs*), "felines" (for *cats*), etc.

Straining for novelty of phrase

(*c*) Obtrusive straining for novelty of phrase.

Vulgar: The football warriors of the Badger State will play the Windy City's squad of pigskin-chasers this afternoon.
Right: The Wisconsin football team will play the Chicago team this afternoon.

Vulgar: The guests spent the evening in doing the "light fantastic" act.
Right: The guests spent the evening in dancing.

Genuine and counterfeit humor

NOTE. — The jocular purpose with which the above-mentioned mannerisms are often practiced furnishes no justification of them. Hackneyed and tawdry English, whatever its purpose, is still hackneyed and tawdry. In condemning the jocular use of these forms of expression, good taste does not condemn humorous writing; it condemns the crude and obvious counterfeiting of humor. A comic account of a football game or of an evening party is commendable if the humor is genuine and entertaining; but in saying "squad of pigskin-chasers" for *football team*, "did the light fantastic act" for *danced*, "the Hub" for *Boston*, or "Indefatigable knights of the pen dogged his steps as far as his hostelry" for *Reporters followed him to his hotel*, — in such language there is only a dull pretense of humor.

Affectation

17. Do not use high-flown language for plain things. High-flown language

Bad: To keep the horse healthy you must be careful of his environment.

Right: To keep the horse healthy you must be careful of his stable.

NOTE.—Showy language, like showy dress, is in bad taste. The essence of artistic language, as of everything artistic, is not abundant ornament but appropriateness. Straining for high-sounding expressions to replace plain English makes a style weak and crude. Call a leg a leg, not a limb; call a book a book, not an effort; call a letter a letter, not a kind favor; call socks socks, not hose; call a house a house, not a residence; say "I went to bed," not "I retired"; "I got up," not "I arose." Plain English

18. In prose avoid the use of words suited only to poetry, such as *dwelt, oft, oftentimes, oftimes, morn, amid, 'mid, 'midst, o'er, 'neath, 'tis, 'twas.* Poetic diction

19. The present tense, when it is used in relating past events, is called the historical present. The historical present, like other intense and unusual figures of speech, is proper only in an abundantly emotional style, in which highly figurative language seems spontaneous. In a plain, straightforward narrative, containing little that is imaginative, the introduction of the historical present is incongruous; it produces the effect either of a bald artifice or of a crude affectation. The historical present

Bad: He shouted to attract her attention, but she went on toward the danger not hearing his warning. Lashing his horse and riding swiftly toward her, he shouted again. This time she hears. She stands still and awaits him. He lifts her to his saddle and rides frantically toward the hut. [Throughout this passage the past tense should be used.]

Initials and blanks in place of names

20. The custom of designating persons and places in a story by initials and dashes, and of representing dates in a similar manner, is obsolete; it suggests affectation. Naturalness and distinctness are gained by using complete names and dates.

Objectionable: I was sitting by the fire with my friend B— at his home in S—, one evening in 18—.

Preferable: I was sitting by the fire with my friend Bowman at his home in Surrey, one evening in 1893.

Names for characters in a story

NOTE. — In narrative composition, definiteness, clearness, and smoothness are gained by calling the characters by name as soon as they are introduced.

Awkward: Two sisters were dining at our house. One of them chanced to remark that the other one could not endure strawberries. Now there was a dish of strawberries on the sideboard. The sister about whom the remark had been made could see this dish, but the other sister could not. The one who could see it made desperate efforts with her eyebrows and her feet to stop the other one, who, however, continued to expatiate on her sister's odd aversion. When the dessert was served, the chagrin of the sister who had made the unfortunate disclosure was amusing to see.

Improved: Two sisters, Fanny and Mary Davis, were dining at our house. Fanny chanced to remark that Mary could not endure strawberries. Now, there was on the sideboard a dish of strawberries, which Mary (the strawberry-hater) could see, but which Fanny could not see. Mary made desperate efforts to stop her sister, who, however, continued to expatiate on Mary's odd aversion. When the dessert was served, the chagrin of the indiscreet Fanny was amusing to see.

"The writer" and "we" for *I*

21. In mentioning yourself do not use the pretentious and inept expressions "we" and "the writer"; use plain, straightforward *I*, *my*, and *me*. The use of *we* in an editorial which purports to be the utterance of a board of editors is entirely proper. The use of *we* for

designating an individual speaker or writer is an affectation. The editorial *we*

Bad: We have selected for our text the second verse of the Epistle of Jude.
Right: I have selected for my text, etc.

Bad: When quite a child we adopted the Graham system for dyspepsia. . . . We partook of [see the Glossary] but one meal in twenty-four hours. . . . Thus we passed most of our early years.
Right: When a mere child I adopted the Graham system of treatment for dyspepsia. . . . I took but one meal in twenty-four hours. . . . Thus I passed most of my early years.

Mixed Figures of Speech

22. Do not use a simile or metaphor which is incongruous with the expression preceding. Incongruity with what precedes

Incongruous metaphor: The officers must enforce discipline among the raw material.
Right: The officers must enforce discipline among the new men.

Incongruous metaphor: We got some oil for the wheel at a farmhouse, and thus our hotbox was nipped in the bud.
Right: At a farmhouse we got some oil for the wheel and thus prevented a hotbox.

Incongruous metaphor: He must conduct his business on an honest foundation.
Right: He must conduct his business in an honest manner; [or] He must build his business on an honest foundation.

Bad: The probe of the Fond du Lac grand jury has netted five corrupt officials.
Right: The probe of the Fond du Lac grand jury has revealed five corrupt officials; [or] The drag net of the Fond du Lac grand jury has caught five corrupt officials.

Bad: With his fortune blown to the four winds, all his ambition was crushed.

Right: All his ambition was, like his fortune, blown to the four winds; [or] In the ruin of his fortune his ambition was crushed.

Figures not carried out

23. When a simile or metaphor has been used, the expression following it should carry out the figure — should not (1) embody an incongruous figure or (2) be incongruously literal.

Bad: The freshman algebra course is a rocky and difficult road to travel. But whether we like it or not we are required to wade through it. [The figure embodied in "rocky road" is not carried out by the figure embodied in "wade through."]

Right: The freshman course in algebra is a rocky and difficult road to travel. But whether we like it or not, we are required to travel it.

Bad: It made a deep impression on my mind which I shall never forget. [The figure embodied in "impression" is not carried out by the literal expression "forget."]

Right: It made a deep impression on my mind, which will never be effaced.

Structure of Sentences

Some Fundamental Errors

Subordinate elements mistaken for sentences

24. Subordinate sentence-elements should not be capitalized and punctuated like independent sentences. (See Exercise LXXIV.)

A. Wrong: It offers a course for those who wish to study painting. At the same time affording opportunity for literary study.

Right: It offers a course to those who wish to study painting, at the same time affording opportunity for literary study.

B. Wrong: Among her suitors were two she favored most. One a college student, the other a capitalist.

Right: Among her suitors were two she favored most; one a college student, the other a capitalist.

C. Wrong: The care of oil lamps requires every day some untidy and disagreeable labor. While electric lights give the housekeeper no trouble.

Right: The care of oil lamps requires every day some untidy and disagreeable labor, while electric lights give the housekeeper no trouble.

25. Do not use a word, phrase, or clause without proper grammatical construction. Elements without syntax

Bad: The resonator responds in a manner analogous to that *which* one tuning fork responds to another.

Right: The resonator responds in a manner analogous to that *in which* one tuning fork responds to another.

Bad: That's all I want, is a chance to test it thoroughly. ["Is" has no subject.]

Right: That's all I want — a chance to test it thoroughly [see Rule 236 *e*]; [or] All I want is a chance to test it thoroughly.

Wrong: There were some people whom I could not tell whether they were English or American. ["Whom" has no construction.]

Right: There were some people about whom I could not tell whether they were English or American.

26. Do not begin a grammatical construction and leave it unfinished. Sentences or sentence-elements left uncompleted

Bad: The fact that I had never before studied at home, I was at a loss what to do with vacant periods. [The noun "fact" with its appositive modifier "that . . . home" is left without any construction.]

Right: The fact that I had never before studied at home made me feel at a loss as to what to do with vacant periods.

Bad: The story tells how a young German, who, having settled in Dakota, returns to Wisconsin and there marries an old schoolmate. [The clause beginning "how a young German" is left unfinished; "German" (modified by the clause "who . . . schoolmate") has no construction.]

Right: The story tells how a young German, having settled in Dakota, returns to Wisconsin and marries an old schoolmate.

Wrong: Any man who could accomplish that task, the whole world would think he was a hero. ["Man," with its modifier "who . . . task," is left without any construction.]

Right: Any man who could accomplish that task the whole world would regard as a hero.

Sentence as subject or predicate complement

27. The use of a sentence (except a quoted sentence) as the subject of *is* or *was* is a crudity.

Crude: I was detained by business is the reason I am late.

Right: I was detained by business; that is the reason I am late.

A similar fault is the use of a sentence (except a quoted sentence) as a predicate substantive after *is* or *was*. This fault may be corrected by changing the sentence to a substantive clause.

Crude: The difference between them is De Quincey is humorous and Macaulay is grave.

Right: The difference between them is that De Quincey is humorous and Macaulay is grave.

When or *where* clause for predicate noun

28. Do not use a *when* or *where* clause in place of a predicate noun; use a noun with modifiers.

Bad: Intoxication is when the brain is affected by the action of certain drugs.

Right: Intoxication is a state of the brain, caused by the action of certain drugs.

Grammatical Agreement[1]

Agreement of subject and verb

29. A verb should agree in number with its subject.

Intervening words

(*a*) Be careful not to make a verb agree with a word intervening between it and the subject, instead of with the subject. (See Exercise XIX.)

[1] For definitions of grammatical terms see Appendix B.

Wrong: A new order of ideas and principles have been instituted.
Right: A new order of ideas and principles has been instituted.

(*b*) Words joined to a subject by *with*, *together with*, *including*, *as well as*, or *no less than*, do not affect the number of the subject. Number of the subject not affected by *with*, etc.

Wrong: The captain, as well as the mate and the pilot, were frightened.
Right: The captain, as well as the mate and the pilot, was frightened.

(*c*) Two or more singular subjects joined by *or* or *nor* require a singular verb. Subjects joined by *or* or *nor*

Wrong: Neither he nor she are here.
Right: Neither he nor she is here.
Wrong: One or the other of those fellows have stolen it.
Right: One or the other of those fellows has stolen it.

30. A verb agrees with its subject, not with its predicate noun. Incorrect agreement with a predicate noun

Wrong: The main part of this machine are the large rollers.
Right: The main part of this machine is the large rollers.
Wrong: Oak, brass, and steel is the material of the structure.
Right: Oak, brass, and steel are the material of the structure.

31. *Each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, *some one*, *somebody*, *any one*, *anybody*, *every one*, *everybody*, *no one*, *nobody*, *one*, and *a person* accord with singular, not plural, verbs and pronouns. (See Exercise XX.) *Each*, *every*, etc.

Wrong: Every one opened their window.
Right: Every one opened his window.
Wrong: Each of the suspected men were held.
Right: Each of the suspected men was held.

Method of correction

32. In correcting violations of Rule 31, recasting is often advisable.

Wrong: Everybody there objected and declared they thought it barbarous.
Right: All the people there objected and declared they thought it barbarous.

Matters of Case

Nominative case for subject

33. The subject of a verb (except of an infinitive; see Rule 35) should be in the nominative case.

Who not affected by *he says*, etc.

(*a*) This rule holds of the pronoun *who* when an expression like *he says* intervenes between the pronoun and its verb. (See Exercise XXI.)

Wrong: The man whom I thought was my friend deceived me.
Right: The man who I thought was my friend deceived me. ["Who" is the subject of "was"; "I thought" is a mere parenthesis.]

Wrong: Whom did they say won?
Right: Who did they say won?

Who or *whoever* not affected by preceding words

(*b*) The pronoun *who* or *whoever*, when it is the subject of a finite verb, should not be attracted into the objective case by a verb or a preposition preceding the clause introduced by the *who* or *whoever*. (See Exercise XXII.)

Wrong: Send whomever will do the work.
Right: Send whoever will do the work. ["Whoever" is the subject of "will do," not the object of "send." The object of "send" is the implied antecedent of "whoever."]

Wrong: The question of whom should be leader arose.
Right: The question of who should be leader arose. ["Who" is the subject of "should be," not the object of "of." The object of "of" is the substantive clause "who should be leader."]

34. A predicate substantive completing a finite verb should be in the nominative case. (See Exercise XXIV.) Predicate substantive with finite verb

Right: It is I. — The beneficiaries are she, they, and we. — Is it we that you accuse?

35. The subject of an infinitive and the predicate substantive completing an infinitive should be in the objective case. (See Exercises XXI, XXII, and XXIV.) Subject and predicate complement of an infinitive

Right: The gazette reported him to be dead. ["Him" is the subject of the infinitive "to be."]

Right: She imagined the burglar to be me. ["Me" is the predicate substantive completing "to be."]

Right: The man whom I thought to be my friend deceived me. ["Whom" is the subject of "to be." Cf. the first two examples under Rule 33-*a*.]

36. The object of a verb or of a preposition should be in the objective case. (See Exercise XXIV.) Object of verb or preposition

Right: Whom do you mean? — It is for her, him, and me. — He helped my mother and me. — All are going, including him, her, and us two. — Does that rule apply to us older members?

37. An appositive should be in the same case as the noun with which it is in apposition. Appositives

Right: All are going, — he, she, and we two. — He spoke to some of us, — namely, her and me. — We all met, — she, the officer, they you mentioned, and I.

38. *Than* and *as* are not prepositions; they are conjunctions, always used to introduce subordinate clauses. When a single substantive follows *than* or *as*, that substantive is not the object of a preposition; it is a member of a clause of which the remainder is omitted because easily supplied from the preceding clause. The case of such a substantive depends on its construction in the clause when the clause is completed. (See Exercise XXIII.) Substantive after *than* or *as*

Right: He is happier than I. ["Than I" = "than I am."]

Right: I can do it as well as they. ["As they" = "as they can do it."]

Right: I should help him more willingly than her. ["Than her" = "than I should help her."]

Than whom

NOTE. — The expression *than whom* is ungrammatical, but well established as an idiom.

> "... when Beelzebub perceived, — than whom,
> Satan except, none higher sat, — with grave
> Aspect he rose. ... "
>
> — *Paradise Lost*, Book II.

Possessive case: Nouns not designating persons

39. As a rule, do not use the possessive case of nouns not designating persons.

Bad: Our university's rules.
Right: The rules of our university.

Bad: Australia's resources.
Right: The resources of Australia.

Permissible exceptions

NOTE. — To this rule good usage justifies certain exceptions. For example, the use of the possessive of *day*, *hour*, *week*, *month*, *year*, *century*, and other nouns designating periods of time is freely allowed; as *day's journey*, *a year's vacation*. But an inexperienced writer should observe the rule carefully, not making exceptions other than those that he knows are frequently made by recognized masters of English prose.

Possessive case in objective sense

40. Do not use the possessive case of a noun to indicate the object of an action; use an *of* phrase.

Wrong: Lincoln's assassination.
Right: The assassination of Lincoln.

Wrong: Mankind's benefactor.
Right: The benefactor of mankind.

Possessive with gerunds

41. Put the substantive modifying a gerund in the possessive case.

Wrong: We left without any one knowing.
Right: We left without any one's knowing.

Adjectives and Adverbs

42. In such expressions as *He looks sad, He looks sadly, It sounds clear, It sounds clearly, He stands firm, He stands firmly*, the word following the verb should be an adjective if it designates a characteristic or condition of the subject; if it modifies the verb, it should be an adverb. Adverb or predicate adjective

Right: He appears good [*i.e.*, appears to be a *good man*].

Right: He appears well in public [*i.e.*, makes his appearance in a creditable manner].

Right: The music sounds loud [*i.e.*, has the characteristic of *loud music*].

Right: The bugle sounded loudly through the ranks [*i.e.*, sounded in a loud manner].

Right: It stands immovable. It smells sweet. It tastes sour. Your hand feels cold. It burns bright. She looks dainty. That statement sounds queer.

NOTE. — In such expressions as *I am well* and *I am ill*, *well* and *ill* are adjectives (see these words in a dictionary). An expression like "I am nicely," "I am poorly," is an ungrammatical vulgarism. "Nicely" and "poorly"

43. In such expressions as *He holds it steady, He holds it steadily, He filled it full, He filled it fully*, the modifier should be an adjective if it designates the condition of the object — the condition produced by the action of the verb; if it designates the manner of action of the verb, it should be an adverb. Adverb or factitive adjective

Right: He kept it safe [*i.e.*, through his keeping, it was safe].

Right: He kept it safely [*i.e.*, he performed in a safe manner the act of keeping].

Right: He wrapped it tight ["tight" designates the condition of the object].

Right: He wrapped it tightly ["tightly" designates the manner of wrapping].

Right: Sweep it clean. Hold it motionless" = "as him dead. Nail it solid. Bury it deep. high.

than her.

Matters of Voice

Misuse of passive voice

44. Do not use the passive voice when such use makes a statement clumsy and wordy.

Resulting in awkwardness

Bad: Your letter was received and carefully read by me.

Right: I received and carefully read your letter.

(See Rule 336.)

Resulting in vagueness

45. Do not, by using the passive voice, leave the agent of the verb vaguely indicated, when the agent should be clearly indicated.

Bad: That was a crisis in my life, which will never be forgotten.

Right: That was a crisis in my life, which I shall never forget.

Matters of Tense

Shall and *will:*

Expectation

46. To represent simple expectation on the part of the speaker, use *shall* (or its inflectional form *should*) and *will* (or its inflectional form *would*) according to the following formula:

I shall (should)	we shall (should)
thou wilt (wouldst)	you will (would)
he will (would)	they will (would)

Wrong: I don't believe I will be able to go.

Right: I don't believe I shall be able to go.

Right: I don't believe he will be able to go.

Wrong: I feared I would fail.

Right: I feared I should fail.

Right: I feared you would fail.

(See Exercise XXVI.)

Determination

47. To represent determination, desire, willingness, promise on the part of the speaker, use *shall* (or *should*) and *will* (or *would*) according to the following formula:

I will (would)	we will (would)
thou shalt (shouldst)	you shall (should)
he shall (should)	they shall (should)

42. I[illegible] sadly, I

right: I will help you; I promise it. You shall not stir; I forbid it. They shall be hanged at sunrise; we, the court, decree it.

(See Exercise XXVII.)

In questions

48. In a question containing *shall* or *should*, *will* or *would*, —

(*a*) When the subject is in the first person, the auxiliary should always be *shall* or *should*, except in repeating a question addressed to the speaker (*e.g.*, "Will I help you? Why, certainly").

(*b*) When the subject is in the second or third person, use the auxiliary that will be used in the answer.

Right form for a question as to expectation: Shall you be recognized, do you think? [The answer, according to Rule 46, would be either "I shall be" or "I shall not be"; therefore *shall* should be used in the question.]

Right form for a question as to intention: Will you do the deed? [The answer, according to Rule 47, would be either "I will" or "I will not;" therefore *will* should be used in the question.]

(See Exercise XXVII.)

In indirect quotations

49. In an indirect quotation use the auxiliary that would properly be used if the quotation were direct.

Right: He said he thought he should ride. [The direct quotation would be, "I think I shall ride"; therefore *should* (an inflectional form of *shall*) should be used in the indirect quotation.]

Shall and *should* in contingent statements

50. In subordinate clauses making contingent statements, *shall* and *should* are correctly used for all persons.

Right: If they should find it, I should rejoice.
Right: A man who should do that would be hated.

The undated past tense

51. Obscurity, or an effect of incompleteness, arises from the use of a verb in the past tense unaccompanied by a time modifier, when there is in the context no indication of the time of the action.

Obscure and incomplete: In accounting for the origin of Lake Wingra, geologists say that a small stream ran through the territory where the lake now lies.

Clear [The necessary time modifier of "ran" is supplied]: In accounting for the origin of Lake Wingra, geologists say that at some remote period a small stream ran through the territory where the lake now lies.

Obscure and incomplete: The filament of an incandescent lamp is usually made of carbon. Filaments were also made of platinum; but this metal, because of its very high price, is at present not used at all in electric lamps.

Clear [The necessary time modifier of "were" is supplied]: The filament of an incandescent lamp is usually made of carbon. Formerly, filaments were made of platinum also; but this metal, etc.

Past misused for past-perfect

52. When the course of a narrative is suspended for the introduction of a preceding event, the past-perfect tense should be used.

Obscure: Mitchell hired a jockey named Brunt to ride Shackles in the approaching race. *Brunt was injured in a jump-race and gave up racing for a time.* But Mitchell persuaded him to begin again. [The reader supposes that the events stated in the italicized sentence followed the employment of Brunt by Mitchell; whereas the writer intends to say that those events preceded the employment. The use of the past tense in the italicized sentence is thus entirely misleading.]

Clear: Mitchell hired a jockey named Brunt to ride Shackles in the approaching race. Brunt *had been injured* in a jump-race and *had given up* racing for a time. But Mitchell persuaded him to begin again.

53. Guard against the incorrect attraction of infinitives and conditional verb-phrases into the perfect tense. An infinitive should be in the present tense unless it represents action prior to that of the governing verb. Misuse of perfect infinitives and perfect conditional forms

Wrong: It was not necessary for you to have gone.
Right: It was not necessary for you to go.

Wrong: I intended to have answered.
Right: I intended to answer.

A conditional verb-phrase in a dependent clause should be in the present tense unless it represents action prior to that of the governing verb.

Wrong: I should not have said it if I had thought it would have shocked her.
Right: I should not have said it if I had thought it would shock her.

54. Do not use a present participle to represent an action not synchronous with that of the governing verb. Anachronous participles

Wrong: On Thursday he left for Pittsburg, arriving there on Sunday.
Right: He left for Pittsburg on Thursday and arrived there on Sunday.

Wrong: Starting for London, he arrived there two weeks later.
Right: He started for London and arrived there two weeks later.

Wrong: It is old, being founded in 1809.
Right: It is old, having been founded in 1809.

Reference

55. Do not use a pronoun, or a pronominal expression, the reference of which is uncertain or not immediately evident. The possibility of even momentary doubt, or of momentary ludicrous reference to a wrong word, as well as real obscurity of reference, should be avoided. (See Exercise XXVIII.) Uncertain or ludicrous reference

Uncertain: Geraint followed the knight to a town, where he entered a castle.

Uncertain: He told his father he would soon get a letter.

Not immediately evident: The ghost of his old partner appeared to Scrooge. He told him he must reform.

Ludicrous: Whistling for Rover, my cousin put a pail in his mouth and we started.

Method of correction

56. Violations of Rule 55 may sometimes be corrected by repeating the antecedent or using an equivalent noun; thus:

Right: Whistling for Rover, my cousin put a pail in the dog's mouth, and we started.

But usually recasting is advisable; thus:

Right: Geraint followed the knight to a town and there saw him enter a castle.

Right: He said to his father, "You will [or I shall] soon get a letter."

Right: The ghost of his partner appeared to Scrooge and admonished him to reform.

Weak reference of *this* and *that*

57. The pronouns *this* and *that* are peculiarly liable to be used with what may be called weak reference. In case of such use, the fault may often be corrected by changing the pronoun to a demonstrative adjective and inserting a noun after it. Thus:

Weak reference: He asked where Cary was. I could not answer that.

Right: He asked where Cary was. I could not answer that question.

Weak reference: We do oppose the bill; if we did not, we should not publish this.

Right: We do oppose the bill; if we did not, we should not publish this article.

Remote reference

58. Do not use a pronoun to refer to a noun that has not been used for a considerable space; repeat the noun.

59. Do not use a pronoun referring to a noun subordinate in thought or syntax; repeat the noun or recast the sentence. Reference to a noun not prominent

Bad: Mrs. Bloodgood will appear at Powers's theater in Fitch's play, *The Girl with the Green Eyes.* This piece was written by *him* especially for Mrs. Bloodgood.

Right: Mrs. Bloodgood will appear at Powers's theater in Fitch's play, *The Girl with the Green Eyes.* This piece was written by Mr. Fitch especially for Mrs. Bloodgood.

Bad: In Miss Howerth's story of her life she relates this incident.

Right: Miss Howerth in the story of her life relates this incident.

60. Do not use a pronoun, or a pronominal expression, seeming to refer to a word or phrase that has not been expressed. (See Exercise XXVIII.) Reference to a word not expressed

Bad: The cadet must keep his hands out of his pockets; *that* would be very unsoldierly.

Right: The cadet must keep his hands out of his pockets; to put them there would be very unsoldierly.

Bad: Marx is a violinist, the study of *which instrument* he began when a boy.

Right: Marx is a violinist. He began the study of the violin when he was a boy.

Bad: A stove is a structure of iron used for holding fire. *They* are employed for both heating and cooking.

Right: A stove is a structure of iron used for holding fire. Stoves are employed for both heating and cooking.

Bad: Mink-skins are valuable, because *these animals* are now scarce.

Right: Mink-skins are valuable, because minks are now scarce.

61. Do not use a pronoun followed by its antecedent in parentheses; use the antecedent alone or else recast the sentence. Antecedent in parentheses

Awkward: If Davis treated Dixon discourteously, there is no objection to his (Dixon's) decision.

Right: If Davis treated Dixon discourteously, there is no objection to Dixon's decision; [or] Dixon is not to be blamed for his decision if he was treated discourteously by Davis.

Dangling modifiers

Dangling participles

62. A participle should not be used unless the substantive it logically modifies appears in the same sentence and is naturally and immediately connected with the participle. (See Exercise XXIX.)

Wrong: Every morning I take a run followed by a shower bath.

Right: Every morning I take a run and immediately afterward a shower bath.

Wrong: He was deaf, caused by an early attack of scarlet fever.

Right: He was deaf, as the result of an early attack of scarlet fever.

Participle introducing a sentence or clause

63. A participle should not introduce a sentence or clause, unless it logically modifies the subject of the sentence or clause. (See Exercise XXIX.)

Wrong: Having come of age, I took my son into partnership with me.

Wrong: There we landed, and having eaten our lunch the steamboat departed.

Method of correction

64. Violations of the foregoing rule may be corrected either (*a*) by changing the participial phrase to a clause, or (*b*) by making the noun logically modified by the participle the subject of the sentence or clause. Thus:

Right: (*a*) When my son came of age, I took him into partnership; [or] (*b*) Having come of age, my son entered into partnership with me.

Right: (*a*) There we landed, and after we had eaten our lunch the steamboat departed; [or] (*b*) There we landed, and having eaten our lunch we saw the steamboat depart.

Participle preceded by *thus*

65. A participle preceded by *thus* should not be used except to modify the subject of the preceding verb.

Wrong: He was careful to avoid having a notice sent to his parents that he had failed, thus causing sorrow at both ends of the line. ["Causing," intended to modify "notice," appears instead to modify "he" and to express the result of "was careful to avoid," etc.]

Right: He was careful that his parents should not receive a notice that he had failed, which would have caused sorrow both to them and to himself.

Wrong: He has to stand still until the rod man comes up, thus giving him no chance to move about and keep warm.

Right: He has to stand still until the rod man comes up, and thus he has no chance to move about and keep warm.

Dangling gerund phrases

66. A gerund phrase (*e.g., in speaking, after going*) should not be used unless the substantive to which it logically relates is present in the same sentence and is naturally and immediately connected with the gerund phrase. (See the examples under Rule 67.) (See Exercise XXX.)

NOTE. — This rule and Rule 67 do not apply when the gerund designates general action, not the action of any special agent. Thus:

Right: In swimming, the head should not be lifted too high.

Gerund phrase introducing sentence or clause

67. A gerund phrase should not introduce a sentence or clause unless it logically modifies the subject of the sentence or clause. (See Exercise XXX.)

Wrong: In talking to Smith the other day, he told me about the race.

Wrong: After pointing out my errors I was dismissed.

Wrong: After flunking three times, the professor reproved me.

Wrong: After singing hymn 523, Mr. Baynes will lead in prayer.

Method of correction

68. Violations of the foregoing rule may be corrected either (*a*) by changing the gerund phrase to a clause, or (*b*) by making the noun to which the gerund phrase logically relates the subject of the sentence or clause. Thus:

Right: (*a*) As I was talking to Smith the other day, he told me about the race; [or] (*b*) In talking to Smith the other day I learned about the race.

Right: (*a*) When he had pointed out my errors, I was dismissed; [or] (*b*) After pointing out my errors he dismissed me.

Right: (*a*) When I had flunked three times, the professor reproved me; [or] (*b*) After flunking three times, I was reproved by the professor.

Right: (*a*) After we have sung hymn 523, Mr. Barnes will lead in prayer; [or] (*b*) After singing hymn 523, we shall be led in prayer by Mr. Barnes.

Dangling elliptical clauses

69. An elliptical clause (a clause from which the subject and predicate are omitted; *e.g.*, *while going* for *while I was going*, *when a boy* for *when he was a boy*) should not be used unless the omitted subject is the subject of the governing clause. (See Exercise XXXI.)

Wrong: When six years old, my grandfather died.

Wrong: You must not cut the cake until thoroughly cooked.

Method of correction

70. A violation of the foregoing rule may be corrected by supplying the subject and predicate of the elliptical clause. Thus:

Right: When I was six years old, my grandfather died.

Right: You should not cut the cake until it is thoroughly cooked.

Elliptical clauses in titles

71. Rule 69 forbids such titles as *An Accident While Hunting*, *Things Learned While Canvassing*. Write rather *An Accident in a Bear Hunt*, *Things Learned by a Canvasser*.

Unity

72. A sentence should be so composed that the reader feels it to be a unit. General principle

73. Two or more statements conspicuously lacking connection with each other should not be embodied in one sentence. Statements unconnected in thought

Bad: Ferguson's features resemble George Washington's, and he was taken into custody.

Right: Ferguson was taken into custody. His features, by the way, resemble Washington's.

Bad: Mr. Booth's parents were early settlers in this county. . . . *After leaving West Point, Mr. Booth, who was formerly well known by our readers, went to the Philippines.*

Right: Mr. Booth was formerly well known by our readers. His parents were early settlers in this county. . . . After leaving West Point, Mr. Booth went to the Philippines.

NOTE. — Sometimes a sentence consisting of two statements lacking connection with each other may be corrected by adding words and rearranging so that a connection between the statements is established. Unity secured by recasting

Bad: The operation of an incubator is simple, but no machine will work well unless it is watched.

Right [unity secured]: An incubator is simple in operation, but, like any other machine, it will not work well unless it is watched.

74. Long compound sentences consisting of many statements strung together with *and's* and *but's* are peculiarly crude. Stringy compound sentences

Bad: The court often gathered to watch Van Dyck at work, but before the picture was finished the Revolution broke out and every one was too much excited to watch its progress, but it went on just the same and was soon finished, and it remains to this day a brilliant proof of the painter's skill.

Right: The court often gathered to watch Van Dyck at work. Soon the revolution broke out. The picture was forgotten by the courtiers in their excitement, but the painter continued to work at it and soon finished it. It remains to this day a brilliant proof of Van Dyck's skill.

Straggling sentences

75. Long, straggling sentences, written without grammatical plan and incapable of making a single definite impression on a reader's mind, are a palpable violation of unity.

Bad: I arrived in Grand Rapids at ten P.M. after ten hours of travel and was met at the train by my brother who greeted me in a very pleasing manner after which we made our way to his home and were met at the door by his wife who had supper ready so we did it justice first then talked about home affairs and the great times we used to have and planned for a great fishing excursion for the next day.

Right: I arrived in Grand Rapids at ten P.M., after ten hours of travel. My brother met me at the train with due cordiality and took me to his home. At the door his wife met us with the good news that supper was ready. After supper we had a long talk about home affairs and the good times we had had. Then we formed a plan for a fishing trip on the next day.

Unity secured by good organization

NOTE. — A sentence may, however, be long without violating the principle of unity. Compare the two following sentences:

1. Tennyson's poem *Lady Clara Vere de Vere* is the speech of a young country fellow to a young lady of high birth who is beautiful but a heartless coquette, having attempted to ensnare the young man and then cast him off merely to amuse herself, as she has done with a number of other young fellows, one of whom, as the young man who is speaking reminds her, committed suicide from grief at her cruelty, which makes the young man who is speaking despise the lady, for he tells her that he cares neither for her beauty nor for her high birth, since she has no goodness of heart.

and he solemnly tells her she ought to cease amusing herself by her coquetry and to "pray Heaven for a human heart."

2. Tennyson's poem *Lady Clara Vere de Vere* is the speech of a manly young country fellow to a beautiful but heartless young lady of high birth, who has attempted to amuse herself by breaking his heart, — a speech expressing disdain for charms beneath which there is no goodness of heart, and contempt for hereditary rank of which the possessor lacks true virtue and honor; reminding the lady of the suicide of another country lad, whom she had enticed by feigned affection and then cruelly repudiated; and solemnly adjuring her to cease her unworthy and injurious diversion, to turn her leisure to some good end, and to "pray Heaven for a human heart."

The first sentence is long and straggling; it is a glaring violation of unity. The second is nearly as long as the first but it is not straggling; it is composed upon a definite and clearly apparent grammatical plan; it does not violate the principle of unity. In the grammatical organization that gives the second sentence unity in spite of its unusual length, parallelism is an important factor (see Rule 111). Observe that the sentence consists of a single main subject and predicate, and depending on that subject and predicate a number of parallel members, — that is, members grammatically alike and introduced alike; and that two of these members have parallelism within themselves, — that is, consist of a single word or phrase as a basis and of a series of parallel members in a common relation to that basis. This parallelism in the second sentence may be made clear by the following diagram:

Tennyson's poem . . . is . . . a speech
- 1. expressing
  - *a.* disdain
  - *b.* contempt
- 2. reminding
- 3. adjuring her
  - *a.* to cease
  - *b.* to turn
  - *c.* to pray

(See Exercise XL.)

76. Avoid abrupt change in the point of view within a sentence. Change of point of view

Bad: We passed over the road quickly and soon the camp was reached. [At the beginning of the sentence, the point of view is that of the travelers; after "and" the point of view is that of the camp.]

Right: We passed over the road quickly and soon reached the camp. [The point of view of the travelers is kept throughout.]

Bad: In order to clean the chain, it should be removed and soaked in kerosene. [At the beginning, the point of view is that of the person who does the cleaning; after the comma the point of view is that of the object to be cleaned.]

Right: In order to clean the chain, remove it and soak it in kerosene [the point of view of the person who cleans the chain is kept throughout]; [or] In order that the chain may be thoroughly cleansed, it should be removed and soaked in kerosene [the point of view of the chain is kept throughout].

Order of Members

Position of modifiers: General rule

77. Every modifier should be so placed that the reader connects it immediately with the member it modifies, and not with some other member. The possibility of even momentary doubt or of ludicrous misinterpretation, as well as real obscurity regarding the application of a modifier, should be avoided. (See Exercise XXXII.)

Bad: The storm broke just as we reached the shore with great violence.

Right: Just as we reached the shore, the storm broke with great violence.

Bad: The ball is thrown home by a player stationed in the middle of the square called the pitcher.

Right: The ball is thrown home by a player called the pitcher, who is stationed in the middle of the square.

Position of the adverbs *only, almost*, etc.

78. Be especially careful to place the adverbs *only, merely, just, almost, ever, hardly, scarcely, quite, nearly*, next to the words they modify, not elsewhere. (See Exercise XXXIII.)

A. Wrong: It is the handsomest vase I almost ever saw.
Right: It is almost the handsomest vase I ever saw.

B. Wrong: Do you ever expect to go again?
Right: Do you expect ever to go again?

C. Wrong: I never remember having met him. [Here "ever" is misplaced and made to modify the wrong word, for *never* = *not ever*.]
Right: I do not remember ever having met him.

D. Wrong: I only want three.
Right: I want only three.

E. Wrong: It is the prettiest I nearly ever saw.
Right: It is nearly the prettiest I ever saw.

79. A modifying clause should not be so placed that a verb following it may, in reading, be erroneously joined with the verb of the clause, instead of with the verb preceding the clause. **Misplaced clauses**

Ill arranged: I walked out into the night as the moon rose and wandered through the grounds.
Clear: As the moon rose, I walked out into the night and wandered through the grounds.

Ill arranged: He sprang to the platform on which the dead man lay and shouted.
Clear: Springing to the platform on which the dead man lay, he shouted.

Bad: A terrible wind and thunder storm visited the Fourth Regiment camp Thursday night, shortly after taps were sounded, playing havoc on all sides.
Right: On Thursday night, shortly after taps was sounded, a violent wind and thunder storm visited the Fourth Regiment camp, playing havoc on all sides.

80. As a rule, arrange a sentence containing a relative clause so that the clause immediately follows its antecedent. **Position of relative clauses**

Awkward: I had many pleasant experiences while I was there, some of which I shall always remember.
Better: While I was there, I had many pleasant experiences, some of which I shall always remember.

Awkward: The correspondence began just one month later which led to the surrender.

Better: Just one month later began the correspondence which led to the surrender.

NOTE. — It may happen that a sentence containing a relative clause cannot be arranged according to the foregoing rule. In such a case it is often necessary, for clearness, to use two separate sentences or two coördinate clauses.

Bad: The police are looking to-day for the persons last in company with Clara Belinfant, the daughter of Abraham Belinfant, a rich New York merchant, who has been missing since July 18.

Right: The police are looking to-day for the persons last seen in company with Clara Belinfant, the daughter of Abraham Belinfant, a rich New York merchant. The girl has been missing since July 18.

Squinting modifiers

81. Do not place between two members of a sentence a modifier applicable to either member. Do not trust to punctuation to show the application of the modifier; recast the sentence.

Defective: He declared that if they did not release Blount, the English envoy, within two hours, in spite of all protest he would shell the town.

Right: He declared that if within two hours they did not release Blount, the English envoy, he would, in spite of all protest, shell the town; [or, if "within two hours" is intended to modify "shell the town"] He declared that if they did not release Blount, the English envoy, he would shell the town within two hours, in spite of all protest.

Defective: The coroner's jury which has been investigating the death of the girl to-day brought in a verdict of suicide.

Right: The coroner's jury which has been investigating the death of the girl brought in to-day a verdict of suicide.

Parenthetic position of modifiers

82. A modifier of one of the clauses of a sentence may often with advantage be inserted within the clause it modifies rather than placed before or after. Thus:

Clear and forcible : If, after all that has been said, you still hesitate, I despair of persuading you.

Parenthetic position of *therefore*, *however*, etc.

83. It is often advantageous to place *however*, *therefore*, *nevertheless*, *moreover*, and the like, within the sentences they introduce rather than at the beginning.

Inferior : His master was always very kind to him. However, his master's wife was altogether too parsimonious.

Better : His master was always very kind to him. His master's wife, however, was altogether too parsimonious.

Separation of coördinate modifiers

84. Two phrases or clauses modifying the same sentence element should not be placed one before and the other after that element; they should be put together.

Awkward : When he has once made up his mind, you may be sure he will never draw back when he has got fully started.

Right : When he has once made up his mind and got fully started, you may be sure he will never draw back.

Split infinitives

85. Do not put an adverb or a phrase between an infinitive and its sign *to*. (See Exercise XXXIV.)

Inelegant : I went there in order to personally inspect it.

Right : I went there in order to inspect it personally.

Inelegant : It is impossible to in any way remove them.

Right : It is impossible in any way to remove them.

Smooth order

86. Arrange the members of a sentence so that the sentence reads smoothly, when this arrangement does not impair clearness.

Awkward : He, instead of acting as my guide, followed me.

Right : Instead of acting as my guide he followed me.

Awkward : Fishing was not good, and they, becoming impatient, decided to quit.

Right: Fishing was not good, and becoming impatient they decided to quit.

Pause after preposition

NOTE. — This principle is violated by interposing a number of words between a preposition and its object, so that an awkward pause occurs after the preposition.

Awkward: He submitted to, though he did not fully approve of, the rules.

Better: He submitted to the rules, though he did not fully approve of them.

See also the first *Right* example under Rule 90 *a*.

Such a construction may be used, for the sake of brevity, in statutes, contracts, and the like, in which smoothness of style is of little consequence.

"The Congress shall have power to dispose of, and make all needful rules and regulations respecting, the territory . . . belonging to the United States." — THE FEDERAL CONSTITUTION.

Except in such a context, the harshness of the construction more than offsets the gain in compactness.

Ordering a sentence with reference to the preceding sentence

87. Arrange the members of a sentence so as to form close connection with the preceding sentence.

Inferior: He wished to examine the planet Mars, then in the western part of the sky. He began to turn the telescope in order to do this.

Better: He wished to examine the planet Mars, then in the western part of the sky. In order to do this, he began to turn the telescope.

Strong close

88. For force, close sentences strongly; put unimportant phrases elsewhere than at the end.

Inferior: Then he would return to work, whistling a merry tune all the while.

Better: Then he would return to work, all the while whistling a merry tune.

Inferior: He said nothing, but kept looking at my neck for some reason or other.

Better: He said nothing, but for some reason or other kept looking at my neck.

A sentence ending with a preposition

NOTE.—The foregoing rule does not concern a matter of correct or incorrect practice, but merely a matter of greater or less rhetorical effectiveness. The common belief that a sentence ending with a preposition is on that account incorrect is a mistake; such sentences abound in good literature; *e.g.*,

"I will not say that the meaning of Shakespeare's names . . . may be entirely lost sight of."— ARNOLD.

"M. Planche's advantage is . . . that there is a force of cultivated opinion for him to appeal to." — ARNOLD.

Moreover, such sentences, as Professor Hill remarks, "do not contravene the principle which forbids a writer to throw stress on unimportant words; for . . . the stress is thrown, not on the last word, but on the next to the last."

Climactic order

89. A series of assertions or modifiers noticeably varying in strength should be placed in climactic order, unless the writer intends to make an anticlimax for the sake of humor.

Weak: I think that the characters are well drawn, the diction is stately and beautiful, and the plot is very interesting.

Improved: I think that the plot is very interesting, the characters are well drawn, and the diction is stately and beautiful.

Weak: He proved himself to be mercilessly cruel at times, unforgiving, and discourteous.

Improved: He proved himself to be unforgiving, discourteous, and at times mercilessly cruel.

Incorrect Omissions

Words used in a double capacity

90. A word or a combination of words may often be correctly used in a double capacity if it is perfectly fitted for both the offices it serves. For example, in the sentence, "I can do it as well as you," "can do it" serves as the predicate of both "I" and "you," and does so correctly, since it agrees grammatically with both pronouns. But there are various ways of using words in a double

capacity that are incorrect; these are indicated in the following rules:

Auxiliaries and copulas in a double capacity

(*a*) Do not supply an auxiliary verb or a copula from one part of a sentence to another if the same form is not grammatically proper in both parts; write the proper form with each part.

Wrong: The fire was built and the potatoes baked.
Right: The fire was built and the potatoes were baked.

Wrong: He was a patriot, but all the rest traitors.
Right: He was a patriot, but all the rest were traitors.

NOTE. — The supplying of an auxiliary from one clause to another is likely to produce an awkward sentence in most cases, even when there is no violation of the foregoing principle. As a rule, repeat an auxiliary rather than supply it.

Awkward: She was taken by surprise and a pistol thrust into her face.
Better: She was taken by surprise, and a pistol was thrust into her face. [See Rule 221 *f*.]

Be as both principal and auxiliary

(*b*) Do not make a single form of the verb *be* serve both as a principal and as an auxiliary verb.

Wrong: At first the drill was interesting and liked by most of the men.
Right: At first the drill was interesting and was liked by most of the men.

Principal verbs in a double capacity

(*c*) Do not supply a principal verb from one part of a sentence to another if the same form is not grammatically proper in both parts; write the proper form for each part.

Wrong: He did what many others have and are doing.
Right: He did what many others have done and are doing.

Wrong: We ate such a dinner as only laborers can.
Right: We ate such a dinner as only laborers can eat

Than or *as* clause in a double capacity

(*d*) Two expressions of comparison, the one an adjective preceded by *as*, the other an adjective in the comparative degree, should not both be completed by a single

as clause or a single *than* clause, unless that clause immediately follows the expression of comparison that stands first in the sentence.

Wrong: Fostoria is as large, if not larger, than Delaware.
Right: Fostoria is as large as Delaware, if not larger.
Wrong: He is bigger and fully as strong as Buck.
Right: He is bigger than Buck and fully as strong.

Other modifiers in a double capacity

(*e*) Aside from cases covered by Rule *d*, above, two sentence-elements should never be limited by a single modifying phrase or clause unless that modifier is idiomatically adapted to both.

Wrong: He had no love or confidence in his employer.
Right: He had no love for, or confidence in, his employer. [The foregoing is correct, but awkward; the following is better:] He had no love for his employer and no confidence in him.
Wrong: I shall always remember the town because of the good times and the many friends I made there.
Right: I shall always remember the town because of the good times I had and the many friends I made there.
Wrong: He acquired a knowledge and keen interest in chess.
Right: He acquired a knowledge of chess and a keen interest in it.

A noun in a double capacity

(*f*) Two incomplete members of a sentence, the one requiring to complete it a singular noun, the other requiring a plural noun, should not both be completed by one noun, unless that noun immediately follows the incomplete member that stands first in the sentence.

Wrong: One of the greatest, if not the greatest, generals of America.
Right: One of the greatest generals of America, if not the greatest.

(*g*) The expressions *as to, in regard to, in respect to* are equivalent to single prepositions; for example, in the

To (in *as to, in regard to,* etc.) used in a double capacity

sentence "A dispute arose in regard to the presidency," "in regard to" is equivalent to *about* or *concerning.* Such expressions are therefore called preposition-phrases (a term not to be confused with the term *prepositional phrases*). These preposition-phrases often have clauses for objects; *e.g.*, in the sentence "A dispute arose as to who was president," the object of the preposition-phrase "as to" is the clause "who was president." When *as to, in regard to,* or *in respect to* thus governs a clause, the *to* should not be made to govern a substantive within the clause.

Wrong: A dispute arose as to whom the honor should belong.
Right: A dispute arose as to who should receive the honor. [See Rule 33 *b.*]

Omission of articles and possessives

91. As a rule, repeat an article or a possessive adjective before each noun in a series, unless all the nouns designate the same thing.

Wrong: Near by are a grocery, drug store, barber shop, and smithy.
Right: Near by are a grocery store, a drug store, a barber shop, and a smithy.

Wrong: She watched her grandmother, aunt, and mother sewing.
Right: She watched her grandmother, her aunt, and her mother sewing.

Wrong: I asked what were the names of her puppies and kitten.
Right: I asked what were the names of her puppies and her kitten.

Omission of prepositions

92. As a rule, a noun should not be used without a preposition, to indicate adverbially the time of an occurrence.

Bad: The preceding summer I went to England.
Right: In the preceding summer I went to England.

Bad: I was born the third of May, 1881.
Right: I was born on the third of May, 1881.

Bad: The race will occur Saturday.
Right: The race will occur on Saturday.

Permissible exceptions

NOTE. — Exception to this rule may be made in the case of such expressions as *last year*, *last month*, *last night*, *last Saturday*, *next year*, *next day*, *next Tuesday*, *some day*, *one day*, *any day*, *that day*, *this day*, *this afternoon*; but do not make an exception for an expression (like those in the *Bad* examples above) which you do not know to be a well-established idiom.

Uncompleted comparisons

93. Do not make comparisons leaving the standard of comparison not indicated or only vaguely implied; let the standard be definitely stated or implied.

Incomplete: Manufacturers have come to see the greater economy of the electric motor.
Right: Manufacturers have come to see the greater economy of the electric motor as compared to steam power.

Coördination

Misuse of coördinating conjunctions

94. A dependent sentence-member should not be joined by *and* or *but* to the member on which it depends.

Wrong: He put up signs to keep people off the grass and thereby improving the appearance of the campus.
Right: He put up signs to keep people off the grass, thereby improving the appearance of the campus.

"And which" construction

95. Do not join a relative clause to its principal clause by *and* or *but*.

Bad: He came home with an increase in weight, but which hard work soon reduced.
Bad: On the way we met a Mr. Osborn from the neighborhood of Denver and who had the typical western breeziness.

Method of correction

96. Violations of the foregoing rule may be corrected by (*a*) omitting the conjunction, (*b*) changing the rela-

tive clause to a principal clause, or (*c*) inserting a relative clause before the conjunction. Thus:

Right: (*a*) He came home with an increase in weight, which, however, hard work soon reduced; [or] (*b*) He came home with an increase in weight, but hard work soon reduced it.

Right: (*a*) On the way we met a Mr. Osborn from the neighborhood of Denver, who had the typical western breeziness; [or] (*c*) On the way we met a Mr. Osborn, who came from the neighborhood of Denver, and who had the typical western breeziness.

Illogical coördination

97. An assertion should not be joined by *and*, *but*, or *or* to a preceding assertion with which it is not logically coördinate. Subordinate thoughts should be put into subordinate grammatical forms. (See Exercise XXXVI.)

Bad: The sheets of tin are laid in rows, and care is taken that all the sheets fit snugly. [The statement after "and" is logically subordinate to the statement preceding, but is made grammatically coördinate.]

Right: The sheets of tin are laid in rows, with care that all the sheets fit snugly.

Bad: This is done by a chemical which has the property of absorbing oxygen and giving it off again; or in other words, it is a carrier of oxygen. ["It is a carrier of oxygen" is made grammatically parallel to "This is done by a chemical;" whereas the assertion that the chemical is a carrier of oxygen is logically subordinate to the assertion that the work is done by a chemical.]

Right: This is done by a chemical which has the property of absorbing oxygen and giving it off again — or, in other words, by a carrier of oxygen.

Juvenile: It was a fine frosty morning and two seniors were walking toward college.

Right: On a fine frosty morning two seniors, etc.

Juvenile: She sat on the ground dressed in a pretty frock, and her dog was in her lap.

Right: She sat on the ground dressed in a pretty frock, holding her dog in her lap.

Juvenile: Their books were rolls of paper and only one side was written on.

Right: Their books were rolls of paper, only one side of which was written on.

Juvenile: He made an interesting speech and it lasted an hour.

Right: He made an interesting speech an hour long.

Excessive coördination

NOTE. — The lack of force and grace by which the style of an inexperienced writer is apt to be characterized is due largely to indiscriminate coördination. This fault in writing is like want of perspective in drawing. In a picture drawn by an unskillful person all the objects usually appear to be at the same distance from the observer; in one drawn by an artist the objects appear at various distances. In somewhat the same way, a style which uniformly connects statements by coördinating conjunctions differs from one which employs a variety of subordinating devices. (See Exercise XXXVII.)

So, then, and *also* used to join verbs

98. The adverbs *so*, *then*, and *also* should not be used to join coördinate verbs in a sentence; for this purpose a conjunction (*and* or *but*) must be used in addition to the adverb.

Wrong: He was only one among many so was not observed.

Right: He was only one among many and so was not observed.

Wrong: I paddled the boat for a while, then fell into a reverie.

Right: I paddled the boat for a while and then fell into a reverie.

The *so* habit

99. The use of the adverb *so* for the purpose of compounding sentences (*e.g.*, "The clerk was incompetent, so the governor removed him from office") is a form of expression rarely found in good literature. If *so* is used as a connective, the sentence it introduces should be set off from the preceding one by a period or a semicolon. (See Rule 231 *b*.) Even this correct use of *so*, however, sug-

gests immaturity if it occurs frequently. It is advisable, in nearly all cases where one has used *so* as a connective, to subordinate the preceding statement and to omit the *so*. (See Exercise XXXVIII.)

Incorrect and crude: His wife thought he would be thirsty so she brought a pitcher of water.
Correct but undesirable: His wife thought he would be thirsty; so she brought a pitcher of water.
Preferable: His wife, thinking he would be thirsty, brought a pitcher of water.

Incorrect and crude: The people were opposed to him for some unknown reason, so he had to accomplish his purpose through secret agents.
Correct but undesirable: The people were opposed to him for some unknown reason. So he had to accomplish his purpose through secret agents.
Preferable: Since the people were, for some unknown reason, opposed to him, he was compelled to accomplish his purpose through secret agents.

Two *but's* or *for's*

100. Two consecutive statements should not both be introduced by *but* or *for*.

Bad: Iago became fond of Desdemona but she paid no attention to him but seemed to favor Cassio.
Bad: He suddenly paused, for it seemed wonderful that he could speak so easily, for usually he was bashful.

Method of correction

101. Violations of the foregoing rule may usually be corrected by omitting the first *but* or *for*. Thus:

Right: Iago became fond of Desdemona. She paid no attention to him but seemed to favor Cassio.
Right: He suddenly paused; it seemed wonderful that he could speak so easily, for usually he was bashful.

Clearness of coördination

102. In the case of several coördinate sentence members that are somewhat long or complex, care should be taken to make the relation between the members immediately apparent to the reader, so that, in beginning any

member after the first, he shall instantly coördinate it with the right member preceding. To this end, the members should be introduced in a similar, often an identical, manner. General principle

Obscure coördination: Then I learned how he had run away from his father, a gypsy vagabond who professed to be a horse-trader and was in reality a thief, dressed in some clothes that he found on a scarecrow in a cornfield, learned the way to my home through the map in an old railway time-table, and come all the way on foot. [This sentence is well constructed; its defect is that the relation between the coördinate members is not shown by similar beginnings.]

Clear coördination: Then I learned how he had run away from his father, a gypsy vagabond who professed to be a horse-trader and was in reality a thief; how he had dressed in some clothes that he found on a scarecrow in a cornfield; how he had learned the way to my home through the map in an old railway time-table, and had come all the way on foot.

The foregoing principle has many different applications. The following are worthy of special mention:

103. A preposition governing several objects should be repeated with each object after the first, when the construction of those objects would otherwise not be immediately clear. Repetition of prepositions

A. Not immediately clear: The place is often visited by tourists who are fond of rugged scenery, and especially amateur photographers.

Right: The place is often visited by tourists who are fond of rugged scenery, and especially by amateur photographers.

B. Not immediately clear: With the refusal of Mr. Goggins to accept the office left vacant by the resignation of Mr. Barnes and the presence of Governor Davidson in the city, the friends of Mr. Roemer were kept busy yesterday.

Clear: With the refusal of Mr. Goggins to accept the office left vacant by the resignation of Mr. Barnes, and with the presence of Governor Davidson in the city, the friends of Mr. Roemer were kept busy yesterday.

NOTE — When the objects stand close together, repetition is usually unnecessary; *e.g.*, —

Right: He had lived in Cuba, Panama, and Barbadoes.
Right: It was exposed to the wind, the rain, and the scorching sun.

But when the objects are separated by intervening modifiers, as in sentences *A* and *B*, clearness usually requires that the preposition be repeated.

Repetition of the infinitive-sign

104. An infinitive-sign (*to*) introducing several coördinate infinitives, should be repeated with each infinitive after the first, when the construction of those infinitives would otherwise not be immediately clear.

A. Not immediately clear: Here nature has done her best to enchant those that can see and feel, and make them her lifelong worshipers.
Right: Here nature has done her best to enchant those that can see and feel, and to make them her lifelong worshipers.

NOTE. — When the infinitives stand close together, repetition of the *to* is usually not necessary; *e.g.*, —

Right: Has he learned to dance, converse, and make himself agreeable?

But when the infinitives are separated by intervening adjuncts, as in sentence *A* above, repetition of the *to* is usually necessary to clearness.

Repetition of subordinating conjunctions

105. A subordinating conjunction introducing several coördinate assertions should be repeated with each assertion after the first, when the coördination of those assertions would otherwise not be immediately clear.

Obscure coördination: When they saw the excellent structure which, though handicapped by the strike and the difficulty of getting materials, he had yet completed in less than the required time, and considered how valuable such a man would be to them, they gave him a permanent position.

Clear coördination: When they saw the excellent structure which, though handicapped by the strike and the difficulty of getting materials, he had yet completed in less than the required time, and when they considered how valuable such a man would be to them, they gave him a permanent position.

NOTE.— When the coördinate assertions are very short, repetition of the conjunction is usually not necessary; *e.g.*,—

Right: He seems to be pretty well, though he takes no exercise and neglects his diet.

It is only when the assertions are complex that repetition of the conjunction is necessary.

Subordination

106. Do not put a series of similar clauses or a series of similar phrases in an overlapping construction, — *i.e.*, with the second depending on the first, the third on the second, the fourth on the third, etc. Recast the sentence.

Overlapping dependence

A. Awkward: I never knew a man who was so ready to help a friend who had got into difficulties which pressed him hard.

Right: I never knew a man so ready to help a friend who found himself hard pressed by difficulties.

B. Awkward: I was so uncomfortable that I rolled up my sleeves so far that my arms got sunburned, so that I could hardly sleep that night.

Right: Feeling very uncomfortable, I rolled up my sleeves so far that my arms got badly sunburned. The pain thus caused kept me awake most of that night

C Awkward: There stood the big handsome motor car of the founder of the infamous combination of the manufacturers of that necessary of life, oatmeal.

Right: There stood the big handsome motor car belonging to Saunders — the man who formed the infamous combination to control the manufacture of that vital necessary, oatmeal.

Coördinate dependence

107. Note, on the other hand, that a series of similar clauses or phrases all depending on the same sentence-element gives rise to no awkwardness. (Cf. Rule 75, note.)

Right: I rise to nominate a man who has ever been stanch in his loyalty, who has long been a trusted counselor in the policies of our party, who has demonstrated his fitness for this office by the efficiency of his administration in others, whose honor has never been assailed save by calumnious envy, whose fame is destined to echo down the coming ages, who . . . etc.

Right: His face has come down to us marked with all the blemishes put on it by time, by war, by sleepless nights, by anxiety, perhaps by remorse.

Misuse of *when* clauses:

108. A *when* clause is properly used only to fix the time of an event stated in the principal clause. Hence:

For statements of primary importance

109. A statement of primary importance in a narrative should not be embodied in a *when* clause; it should be embodied in an independent clause or sentence.

Bad: The thoughts of the engineer turned toward the home he was approaching when suddenly he saw the glare of fire on the track ahead.

Right: The thoughts of the engineer turned toward the home he was approaching. Suddenly he saw the glare of fire on the track ahead.

Bad: Having finished their work, they began to talk about former good times when one of the fellows suggested that they haze Nicholson.

Right: Having finished their work, they began to talk about former good times. Presently one of the fellows suggested that they haze Nicholson.

Upside-down subordination

110. To put a logically principal statement in a subordinate clause and the logically subordinate statement in the principal clause is especially objectionable, unless there is some good reason for such inversion.

Bad: I was walking down State Street yesterday when I came upon a crowd of people gathered about a horse that had fallen down.

Right: As I was walking down State Street yesterday, I came upon a crowd of people, etc.

Parallelism

Parallel forms for analogous elements

111. As a rule, two or more sentence-elements that have the same logical office should be made grammatically parallel; *i.e.*, if one is an infinitive, the other should be; if one is a relative clause, the other should be; if one is an appositive, the other should be; and so on. (See Exercise XXXIX.)

A. **Bad:** The crowd began to wave handkerchiefs and shouting good-byes. ["To wave" and "shouting," both objects of "began," are awkwardly dissimilar in form.]

Right: (*a*) The crowd began to wave handkerchiefs and to shout good-byes; [or] (*b*) The crowd began waving handkerchiefs and shouting good-byes. [The two objects of "began" are made parallel; in (*a*) they are both infinitives, in (*b*) they are both gerunds.]

B. **Bad:** I met many people there whom I had seen before but did not know their names. ["Whom I had seen before" and "did not know their names," both qualifiers (logically) of "people," are awkwardly dissimilar in form.]

Right: I met many people there whom I had seen before but whose names I did not know. [The two qualifiers of "people" are made parallel; both are relative clauses.]

C. Bad: I delight in a good novel—one which portrays strong characters and in reading the book you are thrilled. [The two qualifiers of "one" are awkwardly dissimilar; the first ("which portrays strong characters") is a relative clause, the second ("in reading the book you are thrilled") a sentence.]

Right: I delight in a good novel—one which portrays strong characters and which thrills the reader. [The two qualifiers are made parallel; both are relative clauses.]

D. Bad: Two courses are open to us: first, to have the missionary society transfer to us a missionary now in the field; second, one of our own members has volunteered to go, and we may send him. [The two logical appositives to "two courses" are awkwardly dissimilar; the first ("to have . . . field") is a grammatical appositive, the second ("one of our own members . . . him") a sentence.]

Right: Two courses are open to us: first, to have the missionary society transfer to us a missionary now in the field; second, to send one of our own members, who has volunteered to go. [The two logical appositives are made parallel; both are grammatical appositives to "courses."] [Or] Two courses are open to us. First, we may have the missionary society transfer to us a missionary now in the field; second, we may send one of our members, who has volunteered to go. [The two logical appositives are made parallel; both are sentences.]

E. Bad: I have lived in many states, some for only a short time, while in others I have lived a year or more. [The two qualifiers of the main clause are awkwardly dissimilar; the first ("some for only a short time") is an incomplete modifier of "lived," the second ("while . . . more") a complete subordinate clause.]

Right: I have lived in many states,—in some for only a short time, in others for a year or more. [The two qualifiers of the main clause are made parallel; both are prepositional phrases modifying "lived."]

F. Bad: I was asked to contribute to the church, Christian Association, and to the athletic fund. [The three

modifiers of "contribute" are awkwardly dissimilar in form; the first is a complete phrase, the second a noun with both the preposition and the article lacking, the third a complete phrase.]

Right: I was asked to contribute to the church, to the Christian Association, and to the athletic fund. [The three modifiers of "contribute" are made parallel in form; each is a complete phrase.] [Or] I was asked to contribute to the church, the Christian Association, and the athletic fund. ["To" is made to govern three objects parallel in form, — each consisting of "the" and a noun.]

Correlatives

112. Correlative conjunctions should be followed by coördinate sentence-elements; if a predicate follows the first, a predicate should follow the second; if a modifier the first, a modifier the second; and so on. (See Exercise XXXV.)

Wrong: They would neither speak to him nor would they look at him. ["Neither" is followed by "speak," a part of a compound verb; "nor" by "would they look," a subject and complete predicate.]

Right: They would neither speak to him nor look at him. ["Neither" and "nor" are each followed by an infinitive completing "would."]

Wrong: He is not only discourteous to the students but also to the teacher. ["Not only" is followed by an adjective, "but also" by a phrase modifying the adjective.]

Right: He is discourteous not only to the students but also to the teacher. [The correlatives are each followed by a phrase limiting "discourteous."]

Incorrect parallelism

113. Do not make a sentence-element similar in form to a preceding element with which it is not coördinate.

Misleading: He is a blunt, manly fellow, who admires a soldier and despises an effeminate fop, who struts about affectedly and dresses daintily.

Right: He is a blunt, manly fellow, who admires a soldier and despises an effeminate, affected, daintily dressed fop.

Junction of incongruous substantives

114. Do not join by *and* and put in the same grammatical construction, two substantives or substantive clauses widely differing in logical function.

Bad: The story tells of the bravery and promotion of a private. ["Bravery" designates a quality, "promotion" designates an experience.]

Right: The story tells of a private's bravery and of his promotion.

Bad: He tells in vivid language how dangerous to a vessel is the breaking loose of a cannon on wheels, and how a ship's gunner captured an escaped cannon. [The substantive clause "how dangerous to a vessel is the breaking loose of a cannon" designates a general truth; the substantive clause "how a ship's gunner captured an escaped cannon" designates a specific event.]

Right: He tells in vivid language how a cannon on wheels broke from its fastenings on a ship (explaining the perils that attend such an accident), and how it was captured by a gunner.

Series form for dissimilar elements

115. The formula *a, b, and c,* should not be used for sentence-elements not coördinate. (See Exercise XLI.)

Bad: He was tall, slim, and wore a black coat. [Here *a* and *b* are adjectives, and *c* is a verb.]

Bad: We denounce the act as cruel, barbarous, and sincerely regret that it occurred. [Here *a* and *b* are adjectives and *c* is a verb.]

Method of correction

116. Violations of the foregoing rule may be corrected (1) by inserting *and* between *a* and *b*, or (2) by conforming *c* to *a* and *b*. Thus:

Right: (1) He was tall and slim, and wore a black coat; [or] (2) He was tall, slim, and attired in a black coat.

Right: (1) We denounce the act as cruel and barbarous, and sincerely regret that it occurred; [or] (2) We denounce the act as cruel, barbarous, and worthy of condemnation by all right-thinking sophomores.

Logical Agreement

117. Every sentence-element should be in logical accord with the rest of the sentence. (In connection with this rule, see Rule 28 and Exercise XLII. See also *Subject, Cause,* and *Reason* in the Glossary.) Logical agreement of sentence-members

A. Bad: Of these names sixteen were chosen to be members. ["Sixteen (names)" does not agree logically with "were chosen to be members."]
Right: Of the persons named sixteen were chosen to be members.

B. Bad: The life of a hod-carrier is sometimes happier than a prince. ["The life" does not agree logically with "is happier than a prince."]
Right: The life of a hod-carrier is sometimes happier than that of a prince.

C. Illogical: He hated to submit to the rules, — *viz.*, church attendance and not smoking. [Church attendance and abstinence from tobacco are not rules.]
Right: He hated to submit to the rules, — namely those requiring attendance at church and abstinence from smoking.

D. Illogical: A fireman seldom rises above an engineer.
Right: A fireman seldom rises above the position of engineer.

118. When a thing is compared to other members of its own class, in a statement completed by a *than* or an *as* clause, the standard of comparison in the *than* or the *as* clause should be restricted by *other* or *else*, or by an equivalent word. *Other* or *else* in a *than* or *as* clause:

Illogical: Lead is heavier than any metal. When correct
Right: Lead is heavier than any other metal.

Illogical: Shakespeare is greater than any English poet.
Right: Shakespeare is greater than any other English poet.

119. When a thing is compared to the members of a class to which it does not belong, in a statement com- When incorrect

pleted by a *than* or an *as* clause, the standard of comparison in the *than* or *as* clause should not be restricted by *other* or *else* or any equivalent word.

Illogical: That little word *home* means more to me than any other word of twice its length.
Right: That little word *home* means more to me than any word of twice its length.

The *of* phrase limiting a superlative

120. In the *of* phrase limiting an adjective or an adverb in the superlative degree, —

(*a*) The object of *of* should be a plural noun or a collective noun, not a noun designating an individual person or thing.

Illogical: He is the tallest of any man in the regiment.
Right: He is the tallest of all the men in the regiment; [or] He is the tallest man of the regiment.
(Right: He is taller than any other man in the regiment.)

(*b*) The object of *of* should designate a class to which the subject of comparison belongs, not a class to which it does not belong.

Illogical: Blackbirds make the best pie of all birds. [A pie cannot be the best of birds.]
Right: Blackbirds make the best pie of all game pies.
(Right: Blackbirds make better pie than any other birds.)

(*c*) The object of *of* should not be restricted by *other* or *else* or any equivalent word.

Illogical: Shakespeare is the greatest of all other English poets.
Right: Shakespeare is the greatest of all English poets.

Negation

Double negative

121. Double negative (*i.e.*, the use, in a sentence, of two or more negative words not coördinate, — as "I could not find it nowhere") is forbidden by modern usage. (See Exercise XLIII.)

122. *Hardly, scarcely, only,* and *but* used in the sense of *only* are often incorrectly joined with a negative. (See Exercise XLIV.) Incorrect negative with *hardly*, etc.

Wrong: It was so misty that we couldn't hardly see.
Right: It was so misty that we could hardly see.

Wrong: For a minute I couldn't scarcely tell where I was.
Right: For a minute I could scarcely tell where I was.

Wrong: They are not allowed to go only on Saturdays.
Right: They are allowed to go only on Saturdays.

Wrong: There isn't but one store.
Right: There is but one store.

Redundance

123. Avoid tautology, — *i.e.*, the useless repetition of an idea, in part or entire. Tautology

Bad: If I had abundant wealth and plenty of resources . . .
Right: If I had abundant wealth . . .

Bad: Will you please repeat that again ?
Right: Will you please repeat that ?

Bad: The autobiography of my life.
Right: My autobiography.

124. Avoid pleonasm, — *i.e.*, the use of words which do not involve repetition of thought, but which are structurally unnecessary. Pleonasm

Bad: There were two hundred students went.
Right: Two hundred students went.

Bad: It has no relation as to time or place.
Right: It has no relation to time or place.

Bad: They went through with the formalities.
Right: They went through the formalities.

125. Avoid burdening a statement with too many words. Wordiness

Wordy: Yesterday I had occasion to be a witness of a very interesting incident.
Right: Yesterday I saw an interesting incident.

Wordy: At midnight the physician made a statement saying that the governor was better.

Right: At midnight the physician stated that the governor was better.

Wordy: By a little inquiry on my part, I found that he was a Nihilist.

Right: By a little inquiry I found that he was a Nihilist.

See also the *Bad* examples under Rules 16 and 129, note.

Repetition of Words

Repetition with a change of meaning

126. Do not use a word in two senses in the same sentence or within a short space.

Bad: Since several years passed since the death of his wife . . .

Right: Several years having passed since the death of his wife . . .

Bad: I couldn't get up courage to get up and investigate.

Right: I couldn't summon courage to get up and investigate.

Awkward repetition

127. Avoid awkward and needless repetition of a word or phrase.

Bad: MacArthur was to speak on that day; hence we selected that day for our trip.

Bad: He said that the orders said that uniforms must be worn in future.

Method of correction

128. Violations of the foregoing rule are usually best corrected by recasting, not by merely substituting synonyms for the repeated words. Thus:

Right: That was the day on which MacArthur was to speak; we therefore selected it for our trip.

Right: He said that the orders required the wearing of uniforms in future.

Awkward avoidance of repetition

129. Prefer repetition, however, to labored and awkward avoidance of it.

Awkward: If it has this effect on a healthy skin, it will have a worse result on an inflamed cuticle.

Preferable: If it has this effect on a healthy skin, it will have a worse effect on an inflamed skin.

Straining for synonyms

NOTE. — A constant straining for conspicuous synonyms to use in referring to something previously mentioned is a characteristic mannerism of newspaper writers (cf. Rules 2 *c* and 16). Avoid this practice; repeat the noun, or else choose an inconspicuous synonym.

Bad: At the faculty meeting yesterday the question of football was again discussed. Those of that learned aggregation who opposed the gridiron game succumbed at the final vote. [See Rule 125.]

Improved: At the faculty meeting yesterday the question of football was again discussed. The opponents of the game were defeated at the final vote.

Bad: The extreme warm weather during the past several weeks has not exactly been conducive of producing record-breaking scores at the Y. M. C. A. bowling alleys. In fact it has almost been too warm for even the most ardent lovers of the tenpin game, and enthusiasm has for some time been at a rather low ebb. [See Rule 125.]

Right: The extremely warm weather of the past several weeks has discouraged the production of high scores at the Y. M. C. A. bowling alleys. It has been almost too warm for even the most enthusiastic bowlers, and the general interest in the game has been slight.

Bad: President Roosevelt is willing to mediate in the telegraphers' strike if the key men and their employers request him to act as arbiter in the big tie-up. [See Rule 125.]

Right: President Roosevelt is willing to mediate in the telegraphers' strike if the telegraphers and their employers request his services.

Careless repetition of the conjunction *that*

130. When the conjunction *that* is separated by intervening words from the subject and predicate which it introduces, guard against the careless repetition of *that*.

Wrong: It is pleasant to reflect that after all this work has been done and all these difficulties have been conquered, that we shall get a good rest.

Right: It is pleasant to reflect that after all this work has been done and all these difficulties have been conquered, we shall get a good rest.

Euphony

Concurrence of like sounds

131. For euphony, avoid a succession of like sounds. Avoid rhyme in prose.

Not euphonious: The chilling blasts blowing with cutting force.

Bad: My first year was the best of my college career.

Bad: Then came the time for the heart-breaking leave-taking.

Bad: The fountains were kept playing night and day to keep up the display.

Absolute phrases:

132. Absolute phrases are often a useful aid to proper subordination and to smoothness of style. But there are two kinds of absolute phrases which, being conspicuously awkward, are best avoided; *viz.*,

Absolute pronoun

(*a*) Absolute phrases in which the substantive is a pronoun.

Clumsy: He gave up the task, it being too difficult.

Better: He gave up the task as too difficult.

Clumsy: I being unacquainted with the road, my party got lost.

Better: Since I was unacquainted with the road, my party got lost.

NOTE.— Such an absolute phrase is particularly objectionable when the pronoun refers to the subject of the sentence. In such cases wordiness is added to awkwardness, since the pronoun is pleonastic (see Rule 124).

Bad: I made a trip to Catalina Island in 1902, I being then in my tenth year.

Better: I made a trip to Catalina Island in 1902, being then in my tenth year.

Bad: The furnace could not be repaired immediately, it being red-hot.

Better: Being red-hot, the furnace could not be repaired immediately.

Latinistic phrases

(*b*) Absolute phrases in which the substantive is modified by a perfect participle, especially a passive perfect participle. Such phrases are clumsy, unidiomatic, and suggestive of elementary Latin exercises.

Clumsy: His horse having been fed, Macy continued his journey.

Better: When his horse had been fed, Macy continued his journey.

Variety

Forms of expression noticeably frequent

133. Do not make many sentences in a composition or a passage monotonously alike in construction. This principle is often violated (*a*) by beginning many sentences near each other with *after*, with *this* or *these*, or with *there is* or *there are*; (*b*) by using with noticeable frequency a compound sentence with two members of about equal length joined by *and* or *but*; (*c*) by using participial or absolute phrases with noticeable frequency; and (*d*) by the habitual use of *so* as a connective (cf. Rule 99).

Structure of Larger Units of Discourse

Unity of a Composition

The general principle

134. A composition should treat a single subject and should treat it throughout according to a self-consistent method.

The following composition is an example of the violation of unity by failure to hold to one subject:

OUR TRIP UP SPRUCE CREEK

While I was in Port Orange, Mr. Doty, the proprietor of the hotel there, took some of his guests five miles up

Spruce Creek on a launch. It was the third of February. As the boat steamed up the creek, we stood on the deck, some of us taking pictures and others shooting at alligators with revolvers. The alligators are of all sizes. Sometimes you will see one seven or eight feet long, lying on the bank in the sunshine. As the boat goes past, he slides into the water and swims away with only his head above the water. When we have gone a little farther, we see another alligator about four feet long, with ten or twelve little ones crawling over her back.

When the launch has gone about five miles, it stops at the wharf of an orange grove. Here the passengers are allowed to take all the oranges they want. After they have walked about the grove for a while, they have a picnic dinner, and then start back.

The writer of the foregoing composition keeps to his subject — a trip which he took up Spruce Creek on February 3 — for only three sentences. After the third sentence he shifts to a different subject — the Spruce Creek trips in general — and throughout the rest of the composition forgets all about "our trip." Unity may be given to this composition (*a*) by making it entirely a narrative, dealing with the trip of February 3; or (*b*) by making it, throughout, a general discussion of the Spruce Creek picnics provided by Mr. Doty.

Too big a subject

135. A very small essay on a very large subject — such as Character, Patriotism, Selfishness, Advertising, The Waste of Energy — usually violates the principle of unity. It usually consists of a number of brief scraps of discussion, each dealing with a different division of the subject. The divisions of so large a subject are themselves large; the essay therefore reads like a fragmentary and disconnected treatment of a number of distinct subjects, not like a connected treatment of a single

When a short essay is to be written on a big it is best to choose some single, well-defined pha

subject. For example, choose The Difference between Character and Reputation, rather than Character; The Work of Patriotic Women during the Spanish-American War, rather than Patriotism; Selfishness in the Conduct of Students toward their Parents, rather than Selfishness; Advertising as a Necessary Measure of Self-Defense, rather than Advertising; The Value of a Daily Schedule, rather than The Waste of Energy; How Students' Adversities aid them toward Success, rather than Success.

Shifting the tense in narrative

136. In reproducing a story (*e.g.*, the story of *Macbeth*) or in composing a story, do not shift carelessly between the present and the past tenses. Decide at the beginning which tense to use, and use it consistently. (Cf. Rule 19.)

Shifting the point of view in narrative

137. In a story the opening events of which are told as having been seen or participated in by the narrator, the introduction of events or speeches or thoughts which the narrator, according to his own account, could not have seen or heard or known, is a flagrant violation of unity.

Thus, the italicized part of the following extract violates unity:

> I strolled down to the boat-house at six o'clock yesterday evening. As I got there a row-boat was approaching the wharf containing a man and a girl who I judged must have arrived from the country very recently. *They had started for Picnic Point at two o'clock. On the way the young man had had great difficulty at the unfamiliar work of rowing. Often his oars would slip and send a shower of water into the girl's lap, at which he would say, "Oh, I am so sorry!" and she would reply, "Oh, that's all right." . . . As they neared the wharf, he was anxiously wondering whether he could land without accident.* Jimmy, the keeper of the boat-house, stood ready to assist at the disembarkation. . . .

A story in which unity is thus violated may be corrected (*a*) by omitting all events, speeches, and thoughts of which the narrator could not, according to his own account, have been aware at the time they took place (*e.g.*, omitting the italicized passage in the story quoted); (*b*) by introducing all such events, speeches, and thoughts as having been learned by the narrator after they took place (*e.g.*, making the oarsman in the above-quoted story tell the narrator, in a subsequent conversation, what is improperly related in the italicized passage); or (*c*) by omitting all reference to the narrator — telling everything impersonally (*e.g.*, omitting from the above-quoted story all preceding the italicized part and continuing without any reference to the narrator).

Shifting the tense in description

138. If a description is introduced by narrative, with the object of picturing a thing as it appeared on a certain occasion in the past, the past tense should be used throughout the composition; carelessly shifting to the present tense changes the point of view and violates unity.

Shifting from point of view of one person to that of another

139. Do not change the point of view of a composition or of a passage by shifting carelessly from *I* to *one*, from *we* to *the observer*, from *you* to *a person*, etc. Keep consistently to one point of view unless there is good reason for changing.

Organization of a Composition

The general principle

140. In order that a composition be effective, it must not merely contain good thoughts or interesting statements; it must be a well-organized whole. It can not be a well-organized whole if the writer puts down thoughts or statements at haphazard, just as they occur to him. To get good organization, a writer must proceed by a definite plan; that is, he must, before he begins to write,

or at least before he puts the composition into its final form, decide on a few topics, and on each topic write a passage (see Rule 142), constituting a unit of the whole composition. Unless this plan of organization is followed, the composition is likely to be a mere collection of pieces — not a well-made whole. The pieces may be individually good, but the composition is poor. As in warfare a band of men, though strong and brave individually, is collectively weak if it is not well organized; so a speech, a report, an editorial, an essay, any composition, though its parts may be forcible or clever, is weak as a whole if it is not well organized.

For example, an essay on Denver consists of a short paragraph on each of the following topics:

1. Location.
2. History.
3. Local pride.
4. Water supply (derived from mountain snow).
5. Capitol and United States mint.
6. Museums.
7. Principal businesses.
8. Dwelling houses (none built of wood).
9. Schools.
10. Wealth of citizens.
11. The city as a health resort.
12. Churches.
13. Strange spectacle of men skating in winter in their shirtsleeves.

This production, however interesting its material, is as far from being a good composition as two wheels, a diamond frame, a chain, and a pair of handle bars, all piled in a heap, are from being a good bicycle. It is a series of haphazard remarks not organized into a whole. There is no reason for most of the parts' standing where they are — no reason, *e.g.*, for discussing public buildings after the water supply, or skaters' costumes after churches. The material of this essay may be organized into a whole

by the method shown in the following outline. The numbers within the brackets refer to parts of the preceding outline.

I. History. [2]
II. Location and climate. [Put 1 and 13 here—13 as an illustration of the statements about the climate.]
III. Especially striking peculiarities of the city.
  1. Evidences of its being a health resort. [11]
  2. Absence of wooden buildings. [8]
  3. Public buildings. [5]
  4. Water supply. [4]
  5. Most striking of all, — local pride. [3]
IV. Conditions of the people's life.
  1. Economic: Principal occupations. General wealth. [7 and 10]
  2. Educational and moral: Schools, museums, churches. [9, 6, and 12]

Passages misplaced

141. Material belonging to one part of an essay should not be placed carelessly in another part.

In the following paragraph, the italicized sentence is evidently misplaced:

> The physical training department of our college is very good and is constantly improving. *A good gymnasium for the women is greatly needed, to replace the present unsatisfactory make-shift.* As I am more acquainted with the work of the girls, I shall confine myself to the physical training provided for them.

The italicized sentence does not belong in this introductory part, but in a subsequent part, — *viz.*, that which discusses the equipment for the girls' exercise.

Unity and completeness of each part

142. In an expository essay each of the passages constituting the major units (see the third sentence of Rule 140) should be somewhat like a distinct composition; just as a military company is a complete organization within itself, as well as a unit in a regiment. In other words, each main division of the essay should be a well-

organized, well-introduced, well-concluded whole, which would seem rounded and complete if it stood by itself.

Coherence

143. The opening sentences of a formal composition should be self-explanatory; they should be clear to the reader without reference to the title of the composition. Coherent beginning

Bad:

LAMPS

They are contrivances for furnishing artificial light. . . .

Right:

LAMPS

Lamps are contrivances for furnishing artificial light. . . .

Bad: MY WORK DURING THE PAST TERM

Latin and German were more difficult than any other studies. . . .

Right: MY WORK DURING THE PAST TERM

In my work during the past term, I had more difficulty with Latin and German than with any other studies.

144. The beginning of a new division, either of a whole composition or of a paragraph, should be clearly marked, so that the reader will not begin reading the new division supposing that the preceding division still continues. For marking the beginning of a new part, the following are useful means: Distinct introduction of a new part

(*a*) A transitional sentence or group of sentences, such as the following: Transition sentence or paragraph

So much for [the subject of the preceding division]. It remains to mention [the subject of the new division].

(*b*) Connective words, phrases, and other expressions, such as *again; in the second place; another cause of* [the subject under which the several divisions fall]; *equally important with the preceding consideration is* . . . ; etc. Connective words and phrases

Placing key words at the beginning

(*c*) Placing near the beginning of the first sentence of the new division the word or words that indicate the subject of the new division. For example, after discussing the abuses of college athletics, to begin a new division with the words "The remedy . . ." makes the change of topic immediately evident. After discussing a statesman's foreign policy, to begin a new division with the words "His internal administration . . ." makes the change of topic immediately evident.

Coherence of a statement of consequence

145. When a sentence or a passage states a consequence of what precedes, this relation, unless it is immediately obvious, should be indicated by some connective word, phrase, or other expression, such as *therefore, hence, for this reason, the result is . . .*, etc.

Coherence of an abatement

146. When a passage makes an abatement from a preceding assertion, this relation should usually be indicated by some connective, such as *to be sure; I admit; there is, to be sure, an exception . . .* ; etc.

Coherence of a contrasting part

147. When a passage makes a statement contrasting with what precedes, this relation should usually be indicated by some connective, such as *but, yet, on the other hand, nevertheless, however,* etc.

Coherence of a contradiction

148. Lack of connective words or sentences between a statement and a contradiction of it is especially apt to cause incoherence.

Incoherent: Some people think clerking is an easy job and that a clerk ought never to be tired. Clerks stay closely housed day after day, working from six in the morning to ten at night. . . .

Coherent [the necessary connective is supplied]: Some people think the occupation of a clerk is easy and that a clerk ought never to be tired. This is not the case. In the first place, clerks stay closely housed day after day, etc.

II. PUTTING DISCOURSE ON PAPER

Spelling

Doubling final consonants: General rule

149. A monosyllable or a word accented on the last syllable, if it ends in one consonant preceded by one vowel, doubles the final consonant when a suffix beginning with a vowel is added. Thus: *bid, bidden ; quiz, quizzes.* (See Exercises XLV, XLVI.)

Before *ing* and *ed*

150. From the foregoing rule it follows that a verb of one syllable or a verb accented on the last syllable, if it ends in one consonant preceded by one vowel, doubles the final consonant when *ed* or *ing* is added. Thus: *drop, dropped, dropping.* (See Exercises XLV, XLVI.)

Dropping final *e*: General rule

151. Words ending in silent *e* usually drop the *e* before a suffix beginning with a vowel. Thus: *love, lovable ; stone, stony.* (See Exercises XLVII, XLVIII.)

Before *ing*

152. From the foregoing rule it follows that a verb ending in silent *e* drops the *e* when *ing* is added. Thus: *shine, shining.* (See Exercise XLVIII.)

Derivatives from words in *ce* and *ge*

153. An exception to Rule 151: Words ending in *ce* or *ge* do not drop the *e* when *ous* or *able* is added. Thus: *notice, noticeable ; outrage, outrageous.* (See Exercise XLIX.)

NOTE. — *C* and *g* in words of French, Latin, and Greek derivation usually have the soft sound before *e*, *i*, and *y*, as *cede, genial, civil, giant, cyanide, gymnasium ;* elsewhere they have the hard sound, as *calendar, Gallic, code, gorgon, acute, gusto.* (*Get, geese, gew-gaw, geld, giddy, gift, gig, giggle, gild, begin, gird, girdle, girl,* and *give* are not of the above-mentioned derivation.) Notice how the principle

applies to *accent, accident, flaccid, occiput, accept, accurate, desiccate, except, excuse.* On account of this principle, the *e* must be retained in such words as *noticeable* and *courageous*, in order to keep the soft sound of *c* and *g*.

Change of *y* to *i*: Nouns

154. A noun ending in *y* preceded by a consonant forms the plural in *ies*; as *library, libraries.* A noun ending in *y* preceded by a vowel forms the plural in *ys*; as *valley, valleys.* (See Exercise L.)

Verbs

155. A verb ending in *y* preceded by a consonant forms its present third singular in *ies* and its past in *ied.* Thus: *rely, relies, relied ; marry, marries, married.* (See Exercise LI.)

Change of *ie* to *y*

156. Verbs ending in *ie* change *ie* to *y* before *ing.* Thus: *lie, lying.* (See Exercise LII.)

Plurals in *s* and *es*

157. Nouns ending in a consonant add *es*, to form the plural, when the plural has an extra syllable; when the plural has no extra syllable, they add only *s.* Thus: *lass, lasses ; lad, lads.* (See Exercise LIII.)

Present third singular in *s* and *es*

158. Verbs ending in a consonant add *es* to make the present third singular form when that form has an extra syllable; when it has no extra syllable, they add only *s.* Thus: *miss, misses ; proclaim, proclaims.* (See Exercise LIV.)

Receive, believe, etc.

159. In case of doubt whether to use the digraph *ei* or the digraph *ie* in words like *receive* and *believe,* the question may be determined by reference to the word *Celia.* If *c* precedes the digraph, *e* follows the *c*, as in *Celia.* Thus: *receive, conceive, perceive, deceive.* If *l* precedes the digraph, *i* follows the *l*, as in *Celia.* Thus: *believe, relieve.* (See Exercise LXI.)

Principal and *principle*

160. In case of doubt whether to use *principal* or *principle*, remember that the word which contains **a** (principal) is the adjective, and the other word the noun. (See Exercises LXXI, LXXII.)

NOTE. — *Principal* meaning a school officer is an adjective modifying a noun (*officer*) understood. *Principal* meaning a sum of money is an adjective modifying a noun (*sum*) understood.

O and *oh*

161. In modern prose (the rule does not hold in poetry) the spellings *O* and *oh* of the common interjection are employed as follows: *O* is used when the interjection serves as the poetic or archaic sign of direct address; as "I am come, O Cæsar," "O ye spirits of our fathers," "O God, we pray thee," "I fear for thee, O my country." When the interjection is used in any other way than as the sign of direct address, — that is, in the great majority of cases, — it is spelled *oh*; *e.g.*, "Oh no, it is no trouble," "Oh! you ought not to do that," "My child! oh, my child!" "I will do it — and oh, by the way, where's the key?"

Punctuation with *O* and *oh*

NOTE. — *O* should always be capitalized, and, when used in the manner stated above, should not be followed by any mark of punctuation. *Oh* is not capitalized except at the beginning of a sentence, and may be followed by an exclamation point, a comma, or no mark at all.

A list of words that are commonly misspelled

162. The misspelling of the following words should be avoided with particular care:

Accommodate.
Across. Notice that in *across*, *amount*, *apart*, and *arouse*, the consonant following *a* is not doubled.
Advice (*noun*), advise (*verb*). See Exercise LXXIII.
All right. Two words. There is no such word as "alright."
Altar ("the altar of the church"). *Alter* is a verb.
Amount. See the note after *Across*.
Angel ("the angel Gabriel"). *Angle* means *corner*. Associate *angel* with *angelic*.
Apart. See the note after *Across*.
Apparatus.
Arouse. See the note after *Across*.
Arrange.
Arrive, arrival.
Ascend, ascent. Cf. descend, descent.

Athletic, athletics, athlete
Awkward.
Balance.
Believe. See Rule 159, and Exercise LXI.
Benefit, beneficial.
Boundary.
Burglar.
Business. See Exercise LXV.
Choose, chose, chosen.
Coming. See Rules 151, 152; and see Exercise XLVIII.
Commit, commission, committee.
Comparative.
Consent.
Deceased ("his deceased uncle"). *Diseased* means *afflicted with disease.*
Definite. Cf. infinite.
Descend, descent. Cf. ascend, ascent.
Describe, description.
Desert ("a barren desert"). *Dessert* means *last course of a meal.*
Device (*noun*), devise (*verb*). See Exercise LXXIII.
Different, difference. Cf. excellent, excellence; independent, independence.
Dining room. See Rules 151, 152; and see Exercise XLVIII.
Disappear. } See Exercise LXII.
Disappoint. }
Discipline. Cf. fascinate.
Eighths ("three eighths" etc.). Cf. hundredths, thousandths.
Embarrass, embarrassment.
Etc. Abbreviation for *et cetera.*
Excellent, excellence. Cf. different, difference; independent, independence.
Existence. Cf. experience, sentence, reference, preference, deference, conference, inference.
Experience. See *Existence.*
Fascinate. Cf. discipline.
Finally. See Exercise LV.
Formerly. Not to be confused with *formally*
Forty. But four, fourteen.
Grammar.

Grievous. Cf. mischievous.
Guard.
Height. There is no such word as "heighth." *Highth* is obsolete.
Humorous. See Exercise LIX.
Hundredths. Cf. eighths, thousandths.
Impromptu.
Incident. Not "incidence."
Independent, independence. Cf. different, difference, excellent, excellence.
Infinite. Cf. definite.
Invitation.
Itself. Cf. oneself. See Rule 164.
Laboratory.
Laid. Not "layed."
Later ("sooner or later").
Latter ("the former, the latter").
Led. See Exercise LXVII.
Lightning.
Lose. See Exercise LXVI.
Macaulay.
Mathematics.
Meant.
Messenger.
Mischievous. Cf. grievous.
Month.
Murmur.
Mystery, mysterious.
Necessary, necessity.
Niagara.
Occasion, occasional, occasionally. See Exercise LVI.
Occur, occurred, occurring, occurrence. See Rules 149, 150; and see Exercises XLV, XLVI.
Officer. Cf. prisoner.
Omit, omission.
Oneself. Cf. itself. See Rule 164.
Operate, operation.
Opportunity.
Origin, original.
Parallel.
Partner.
Possess, possession.

Precede, proceed, recede, concede, succeed, supersede. See Exercise LXIV.
Preference. See *Existence.*
Preparation.
Principal, Principle. } See Rule 160 and Exercises LXXI, LXXII.
Prisoner. Cf. officer.
Privilege.
Proceed. See *Precede.*
Profession, Professor. } See Exercise LXIII.
Prove.
Pursue.
Quiet.
Rapid.
Receive. See Rule 159 and Exercise LXI.
Recognize.
Recommend, recommendation.
Reference. See *Existence.*
Repetition.
Safety.
Sentence. See *Existence.*
Separate, separation.
Similar.
Sophomore.
Specimen.
Speech. But speak.
Stretch.
Studying.
Surprise.
Symmetry, symmetrical.
Their.
Therefore. Not "therefor," which = *for it.*
Thorough.
Thousandths. Cf. eighths, hundredths.
Together.
Too. See Exercise LXVIII
Truly.
Until.
Vengeance.
Village.
Villain.

Weak (= *feeble*).
Week (= *seven days*).
Woman.
Writer, writing. See Rules 151, 152; and see Exercises XLVII, XLVIII.
Yacht.

163. The members of each of the following italicized expressions should be written as separate words: Incorrect uniting of separate words

all right	*per cent.* (See Rule 4 *i.*)
all ready (adjective)	*in order*
near by	*in spite*
some time (noun)	*any one*
some day	*every one*
every time	*some one*
a while (noun)	*no one*
(on the) *other hand*	

164. Each of the following expressions should be written as a single undivided word: Incorrect division of single words

myself	anything	altogether
yourself	something	although
himself	sometimes	inasmuch
herself	somewhat	moreover
itself	whoever	notwithstanding
oneself	whatever	nevertheless
anybody	whichever	nowadays
everybody	whenever	farewell
somebody	wherever	outside
nobody	already (*adverb*)	inside

Legibility

165. Let a liberal space intervene between consecutive lines in a manuscript. Do not let the loops of *f's*, *g's*, *j's*, *q's*, *y's*, and *z's* in any line descend below the general level of the loops of *b's*, *f's*, *h's*, *k's*, and *l's*, in the line below. (Compare Plates I and II.) Space between lines

166. Do not crowd consecutive words close together. (Compare Plates I and II.) Space between words

You may well ask "What are his qualifications?" Qualifications indeed! He has none. He has passed his life in a blacksmith shop.

Doubtless this qualifies him — or may qualify him — to make horseshoes; but will this ability (if he has it) enable him to represent our ward worthily in the City Council? Far be it from me to disparage a citizen for no better reason than that he is a working man. I merely wish to point out that to fulfil properly the functions of an alderman in this great city certain knowledge, certain experience, certain familiarity with public business is indispensible, and simply ask you as man to man (I ask Simpson) this knowledge, this experience, this familiarity."

You may well ask, "What are his qualifications?" Qualifications indeed! He has none. He has passed his life in a blacksmith shop. Doubtless this qualifies him — or may qualify him — to make horseshoes; but will this ability (if he has it) enable him to represent our ward worthily in the City Council? Far

PLATE II

Extra space after period, etc.

167. Between a period, a question mark, an exclamation mark, a semicolon, a colon, a word immediately before a direct quotation, the last word of a direct quotation,— between any of these and a word following on the same line, leave double the usual space between words. (See Plate II, lines 1, 2, 3, and 9; and compare the corresponding places in Plate I.)

Crowding marks of punctuation

168. Do not crowd marks of punctuation close to one another or to the words next them. (See Plate I, lines 1, 2, and 9, and compare the corresponding places in Plate II.)

Crowding at bottom of page

169. Do not crowd the writing at the bottom of a page; take a new page.

Gaps between letters

170. Do not leave gaps between consecutive letters in a word. Especially avoid leaving a wide interval between an initial capital and the rest of the word.

Oblique *and*

171. Do not write *and* on an oblique line.

Dots and cross-strokes

172. Do not neglect dotting *i*'s and *j*'s and crossing *t*'s and *x*'s.

173. Place the cross of a *t* across the stem of the *t*, not elsewhere. Place the dot of an *i* or a *j* immediately above the *i* or the *j*, not elsewhere.

174. Making the crosses of *t*'s conspicuous for their length, peculiar shape, or peculiar direction is a hindrance to legibility and an annoyance to the reader. Cross a *t* with a straight horizontal stroke not more than a quarter of an inch long.

Shape of quotation marks and apostrophes

175. Form quotation marks and apostrophes, not as in this illustration:

Ann's motto is "What's the use?"

but as in this:

Ann's motto is 'What's the use?'

176. Write Roman numbers, not in this manner: **Shape of Roman numbers**

II, III, IV, VIII, IX

but in this:

II, III, IV, VIII, IX.

177. In forming a letter do not decorate with flourishes not necessary for identifying it, or with conspicuous shading. Avoid especially such forms as the following: **Conspicuous ornament**

B, C, D, E, F, H, M, N, O, T

Prefer plain forms like the following:

B, C, D, E, F, H, M, N, O, T.

Arrangement of Manuscript

The Manuscript as a Whole

178. The paper for the manuscript of a literary composition should be unruled, unless special circumstances, such as the regulations of a class, require the contrary. The writing should be done either with a typewriter or with black ink. Only one side of each sheet of paper should be written on. A manuscript should never be rolled; it should go to its destination either flat, or folded as simply as possible. **Writing materials** **Only one side of paper to be used** **Rolling not permissible**

Pages

179. The pages of a manuscript should be numbered at the top, in Arabic, not Roman numbers. **Page numbers**

180. The title should be written at least two inches from the top of the page. Between the title and the first line of the composition, at least an inch should intervene. **Position of title**

181. The first line of each page should stand at least an inch from the top of the page. **Margin at the top**

182. There should be a blank margin of at least two inches at the left side of each page. **Margin at the left**

Paragraphs

Mechanical Marks of a Paragraph

Indention: Of ordinary paragraphs

183. In manuscript the first line of every paragraph should be indented at least an inch. (See Plate II, line 1.)

Of numbered paragraphs

184. No exception to the foregoing rule should be made when paragraphs are numbered.

Wrong:

I. What power has Congress to punish crimes?
II. State in what cases the Supreme Court has original jurisdiction.
III. How are presidential electors chosen? Would it be constitutional for a State legislature to choose them?

Right:

I. What power has Congress to punish crimes?
II. State in what cases the Supreme Court has original jurisdiction.
III. How are presidential electors chosen? Would it be constitutional for a State legislature to choose them?

Irregular indention

185. The first lines of all paragraphs should begin at the same distance from the margin; do not indent the beginning of one paragraph an inch, that of another two inches, that of another half an inch, etc.

Incorrect indention

186. No line except the first line of a paragraph should be indented in the slightest.

Incorrect spacing out

187. After the end of a sentence do not leave the remainder of the line blank unless the sentence ends a paragraph; begin the next sentence on the same line, if there is room. This rule is violated in Plate I, line 4.

Division of a Composition into Paragraphs

Paragraphing as an Aid to Clearness

The fundamental principle

188. Paragraphing, if properly employed, gives the reader as much assistance in understanding a whole composition as punctuation gives him in understanding a sen-

ence. Parts of a composition that are distinct in topic ıay by paragraphing be made distinct to the eye also, — n effect that decidedly promotes clearness. For instance, uppose an essay on Queen Elizabeth discusses three ɔpics: (1) Elizabeth's personal character, (2) her char- cter as a ruler, and (3) her popularity with her subjects. 'o embody the three passages corresponding to these ıree topics in separate paragraphs makes evident at nce the beginning and the end of each passage, and thus nables the reader to grasp without effort the struc- ıre of the essay. On this consideration are based the ollowing rules (189–193):

189. A passage entirely distinct in topic from what recedes and follows should (except when Rule 207 ap- lies) be written as a separate paragraph.

Applications: (i) Paragraphing of distinct parts

Thus, suppose an essay on gasoline engines presents —

(*m*) An explanation of the operation of gasoline engines.
(*n*) An estimate of gasoline engines as compared with other kinds of engines.

'arts *m* and *n* should be embodied in separate para- raphs. Suppose a story tells —

(*m*) The hero's visit to the bank and his transactions there.
(*n*) What was happening meanwhile at the hero's factory.

'arts *m* and *n* should be embodied in separate para- raphs.

190. A passage that serves as an introduction or a ɔnclusion to a composition consisting of several para- raphs should be paragraphed separately, even if it con- sts of only one or two sentences.

Paragraphs of introduction and conclusion

Correct paragraphing:

The large body of recent State legislation compelling railway companies to reduce passenger fares, though

it probably sprang from good intentions, is likely to have three unfortunate consequences.

[*The main body of the essay consists of three paragraphs, each discussing one of the three unfortunate consequences.*]

One can not foretell, of course, how many years will elapse before these three results of the recent railway legislation will work themselves out; it may be five years, or it may be a dozen. But that they will sooner or later work themselves out seems, in the light of history, practically certain.

Paragraphs of transition

191. A passage that serves merely to make a transition from one group of paragraphs to a following group should be paragraphed separately.

Correct paragraphing:

[*The achievements of Macaulay as a man of letters are discussed for three or four paragraphs.*]

Macaulay's political achievements, though less distinguished than his literary achievements, are worthy of a somewhat detailed notice.

[*Two or three paragraphs follow, dealing with Macaulay's political career.*]

Paragraphing of direct quotations

192. In narratives, as a rule, any direct quotation, together with the rest of the sentence of which it is a part, should be paragraphed separately. (See Exercise LXXIX.)

Right:

There were no takers. Not a man believed him capable of the feat. Thornton had been hurried into the wager, heavy with doubt; and now that he looked at the sled itself, the concrete fact, with the regular team of ten dogs curled up in the snow before it, the more impossible the task appeared. Mathewson waxed jubilant.

"Three to one," he proclaimed. "I'll lay you another thousand at that figure, Thornton. What d'ye say?"

Thornton's doubt was strong in his face, but his fighting spirit was aroused — the fighting spirit that soars above odds, fails to recognize the impossible, and is deaf to all save the clamor for battle. He called Hans and Pete to him. Their sacks were . . .

193. Rule 192 should be especially observed in the report of a conversation; each speech, regardless of length, should be paragraphed separately. (See Exercise LXXIX.) Dialogue

Wrong:

"When did you arrive?" I asked. "An hour ago," he answered. "Didn't you get my letter?" "No." "Strange," he said.

Right:

"When did you arrive?" I asked.

"An hour ago," he answered. "Didn't you get my letter?"

"No."

"Strange," he said.

194. Observe that in order to paragraph an isolated quotation separately (as is done in the example under Rule 192), the line following the quotation must be indented. Indention after a quotation

195. A quotation may be detached by paragraphing from the introductory expression (*e.g.*, *he said*) if this expression precedes it. Indention in the midst of a sentence

Right:

Mr. Peggotty looked round upon us and nodding his head with a lively expression animating his face, said in a whisper,

"She's been thinking of the old 'un."

But a quotation should not be so detached from the introductory expression if the quotation does not close the sentence.

Wrong:

Thinking I could stand it if my friend could, I called out to him,

"Come on. Who's afraid?" and started into the house.

Wrong:

Thinking I could stand it if my friend could, I called out to him,

"Come on. Who's afraid?"

and started into the house.

Right:

Thinking I could stand it if my friend could, I called out to him, "Come on. Who's afraid?" and started into the house.

(ii) Grouping of related parts

196. When several consecutive short passages present slightly different topics, yet collectively form a larger division, distinct from other divisions of the composition, it is disadvantageous to write the short passages apart from each other, for this gives the reader no visible indication of the distinctness and unity of the larger division. The distinctness and unity of the whole division should be made apparent, rather than the individuality of its parts. Hence the following rule:

Improper paragraphing of minute parts

197. Several consecutive short passages composing a larger unit of a composition should not be written each in a separate paragraph, but should be combined into one paragraph.

Thus in an essay on a steel factory, describing —

(*a*) The process of sheet-rolling,
(*b*) The process of rail-rolling,
(*c*) The process of casting,

part *b* should not be written as follows:

Steel ingots six feet long and six inches square were heated to a white heat in a large oven.

When sufficiently hot, an ingot was removed and taken on an endless chain to the first set of rollers.

These rollers were eighteen inches in diameter. When the ingot had been passed through them, it was a bar of steel ten feet long and five inches thick.

Then the bar of steel was put on another endless chain and taken to a second pair of rollers.

This process was continued, the bar being passed successively through five or six pairs of rollers.

It came from the last pair a red-hot rail of standard size.

It was next bent slightly so that the base was convex. This was to allow for unequal contraction in cooling.

The rail was now left to cool.

When cold, it was taken to the cold rollers and rolled perfectly straight.

The foregoing passage should be written as a single paragraph; and so should part *a* and part *c* of the same essay.

(iii) Paragraphing where there is no change of topic

198. The beginning of a new paragraph naturally leads the reader to think that the discussion of a new topic is beginning. Therefore, to begin a new paragraph where the discussion of a new topic does not begin misleads the reader. Hence the following rule:

199. A sentence that does not introduce a new topic but continues the topic of the preceding sentence should not be made to begin a new paragraph.

The paragraphing in the following passage, for example, is illogical and objectionable:

The beauty of Fra Angelico's character has been the admiration of all who ever studied the life of that devout and gentle artist. He might have lived in ease and comfort, for his art would have made him rich; instead, he chose the cloister life. Fra Angelico was gentle and kindly to all.

He was never seen to display anger and if he admonished his friends, it was with mildness. . . .

In this passage, the discussion of the gentleness of Fra Angelico begins in the sentence "Fra Angelico was gentle," etc.; the sentence "He was never," etc., continues the discussion of this topic — does not introduce a new topic. Hence, there should be no paragraph division where one now stands; the sentence "He was never," etc., should follow without a break.

(iv) Unity of a paragraph

200. A paragraph, by its visible detachment from what precedes and follows, suggests the unity of the pas-

sage it embodies. A passage not having unity should therefore not be put into one paragraph and thus presented under the guise of unity. Hence the following rule:

201. See that every paragraph has one central topic, under which all the statements in the paragraph logically fall.

NOTE. — The presence, in a paragraph of an expository essay, of several passages not belonging, or seeming not to belong, to a single topic, usually points to bad organization of the essay (see Rules 140, 141), or to bad organization of the passage embodied in the paragraph (see Rule 142).

Paragraphing for Emphasis

Sentences made conspicuous by detachment

202. A sentence or a short passage which the writer wishes to make especially emphatic may be paragraphed separately.

Thus, in the following passage the italicized part does not require to be paragraphed as being distinct from the preceding part; but it may properly be set apart for emphasis.

> Indefinite narrative should not be entirely avoided; it is useful, and for some purposes is preferable to concrete narrative. Parts of a story that are not of dramatic interest, speeches that are of no interest or importance, — these may properly be conveyed by indefinite rather than by concrete narrative. But remember this:
>
> *Actions occurring at important points of a story should be related by concrete, not indefinite narrative.*

Paragraphing for Ease in Reading

Unbroken text fatiguing

203. Reading an extended composition or passage in the text of which there are no breaks to rest the eye, is fatiguing. Hence the following rules (204 and 205):

Neglect of paragraphing

204. A composition more than 300 words long should not be written without paragraphing.

205. A passage more than 300 words long, even if it constitutes a single unit of the composition, should usually not be written as a single paragraph, but should be divided into two or three paragraphs of convenient length (*i.e.*, not longer than 200 words). Paragraphs too long

Thus, an essay on Lincoln, presenting —

1. A narrative of his life (350 words)
2. An estimate of his greatness (100 words)

should not be written as two paragraphs corresponding to the two main divisions of the material, but should be paragraphed in some such way as the following:

¶ Events of life up to 1860 (200 words)
¶ Career as president (150 words)
¶ Estimate of his greatness (100 words)

206. On the other hand, it should be remembered that reading a passage not more than about 200 words long is not fatiguing to the ordinary reader, and that over-frequent paragraphing annoys as much as lack of any paragraphing fatigues. Hence the following rules (207 and 208): Over-frequent paragraphing

207. A composition no longer than 150 words should usually be written without any paragraph divisions.

208. Do not paragraph with needless frequency and without good reason.

Writing Verse

209. If an entire line of poetry can not be written on one line of the page, the part left over should be placed as shown below: Left-over parts of lines

Right:

Lombard and Venetian merchants with deep-laden
    argosies;
Ministers from twenty nations; more than royal
    pomp and ease.

Wrong:

Lombard and Venetian merchants with deep-laden argosies;
Ministers from twenty nations; more than royal pomp and ease.

Grouping of verse into lines

210. A quotation of poetry should be grouped into lines exactly as the original is grouped.

Bad:

Once to every man and nation
Comes the moment to decide
In the strife of truth with falsehood for the
Good or evil side.

Right:

Once to every man and nation comes the moment to decide
In the strife of truth with falsehood for the good or evil side.

Verse set apart on the page

211. A quotation of verse occurring in a prose composition should begin on a new line. The prose following such a quotation should also begin on a new line, indented if it begins a new paragraph, flush with the left-hand margin if it continues the paragraph containing the quotation.

Wrong:

While Tennyson admits that sorrow may be for our ultimate advantage and that, as his great memorial says, "Men may rise on stepping stones
Of their dead selves to higher things,"
yet he finds it impossible to get any present consolation from the thought.

Right:

While Tennyson admits that sorrow may be for our ultimate advantage and that, as his great memorial says,

"Men may rise on stepping stones
Of their dead selves to higher things,"

yet he finds it impossible to get any present consolation from the thought.

See also the first *Right* example under Rule **246**; and see p. v.

Extended Quotations of Prose

Extended quotations set apart on the page

212. A passage of prose quoted from a written composition or a formal speech, if it is three or four sentences long or longer, should be set apart from the matter preceding and following it, in the same way as a quotation of verse (see Rule 211).

Right:

The part of the letter of instructions providing for an examination of candidates I quote verbatim. This part is as follows:

"and that, furthermore, all candidates be examined as to their knowledge of constitutional law; that this examination be conducted in writing; and that the following questions, among others, be asked:

"1. What power has Congress to punish crimes?

"2. State in what cases the Supreme Court has original jurisdiction.

"3. How are presidential electors chosen? Would it be constitutional for a state legislature to choose them?"

These instructions, it will be perceived, leave the committee no discretion in regard to waiving the examination.

For other examples see Rules 137, 141, 199, 202.

Tabulated Lists

Indention

213. In a list of items set down in tabular form, the first line of each item should extend farther to the left than the remaining lines of the item.

Wrong:

The principal powers of the President are—

(*a*) The power to conduct foreign affairs.

(*b*) The power to command the army and navy in time of war.

(*c*) The power to veto bills.

(*d*) The power to appoint officers (subject to the approval of the Senate).

Right:

The principal powers of the President are —

(*a*) The power to conduct foreign affairs.
(*b*) The power to command the army and navy in time of war.
(*c*) The power to veto bills.
(*d*) The power to appoint officers (subject to the approval of the Senate).

Tabulated matter set apart on the page

214. A list of items in tabular form should be set apart from the matter preceding and following it, in the same manner as a quotation of verse (see Rule 211).

Bad:

Under this subject there are three important headings:
(*a*) Position of pronouns
(*b*) Use of connectives
(*c*) Position of phrases; all of which are to be carefully studied.

Right:

Under this subject there are three important headings:
(*a*) Position of pronouns
(*b*) Use of connectives
(*c*) Position of phrases
all of which are to be carefully studied.

NOTE. — Another way of correcting the errors above shown is to write the passage without tabulating the items; thus:

Right: Under this subject there are three important headings: (*a*) Position of pronouns; (*b*) Use of connectives; and (*c*) Position of subordinate expressions; all of which are to be carefully studied.

For other illustrations of the rule see Rules 140, 189, 197.

Alterations in Manuscript

Insertion

215. Words to be inserted should be written above the line, and their proper position should be indicated by the sign ∧ (not "v") placed below the line. Words so inserted should not be enclosed in parentheses or brackets

unless these marks would be required were the words written on the line.

NOTE. — Obscurity results from writing an insertion in the manner shown in the *Bad* example below:

Bad:

Although tennis is at present very popular ∧ it probably will never rank with football as a game for supremacy between colleges.
as an agreeable means of exercising the muscles,

Right:

Although tennis is at present very popular ∧ it probably will never rank with football as a game for supremacy between colleges.
as an agreeable means of exercising the muscles,

Right:

Although tennis is at present very popular ∧ ~~it probably~~ ∧ will never rank with football as a game for supremacy between colleges.
as an agreeable means of exercising the muscles, it probably

216. Erasures should be made by drawing a line through the words to be canceled. Parentheses or brackets should not be used for this purpose. Erasure

217. Words written in one place which are to be transposed to another, should be canceled (see Rule 216) and inserted in the proper place by the method shown in Rule 215. No other method of transposition should be used. Transposition

218. When it is desired that a word standing in the midst of a paragraph should begin a new paragraph, the sign ¶ should be placed immediately before that word. The change should not be indicated otherwise. Indicating a new paragraph

219. A paragraph division should be canceled by writing "No ¶" in the margin. The change should not be indicated otherwise. Canceling a paragraph division

Punctuation

The Period (.)

Close of a sentence

220. Use the period —

(*a*) After a complete declarative or imperative sentence.

Abbreviations

(*b*) After an abbreviated word or a single or double initial letter representing a word; as *etc.*, *viz.*, *Mrs.*, *i.e.*, *e.g.*, *LL.D.*, *pp.*

The Comma (,)[1]

221. Use the comma —

Direct address

(*a*) To set off a substantive used in direct address.

Right: You see, *John*, how I stand.

(*b*) To set off appositives.

Appositives

Right: Next he went to Vienna, *the capital of Austria*.

NOTE. — Exception to this rule should be made (1) in the case of an appositive that is a regular part of a proper name (*e.g.*, *William the Conqueror*); and (2) in the case of appositives like the italicized expressions in the following sentences:

Right: The word *beautiful* is an adjective.

Right: The expression "*Where am I at?*" is a provincialism.

Absolute phrases

(*c*) To set off absolute phrases.

Right: *Everything being ready*, the guard blew his horn.

Parenthetic members

(*d*) To set off any word or phrase which has a parenthetic function but for which parenthesis marks or double dashes are not suitable.

Right: He was satisfied, *I suppose*, with his situation. His refusal of my offer, *however*, I don't understand.

NOTE. — For setting off a parenthetic expression, prefer commas to parenthesis marks where commas will make the sentence clear; but notice that the use of commas for this purpose may cause obscurity in some cases — particularly when the parenthetic expression is a complete sentence.

[1] See Exercise LXXVII.

Obscure: By all appearances, of course this is a secret, he is likely to win.

Clear: By all appearances (of course, this is a secret) he is likely to win; [or] By all appearances — of course, this is a secret — he is likely to win [see Rule 236 *c*].

(*e*) To set off a geographical name explaining a preceding name. Geographical names

Right: Paris, Illinois, is a smaller city than Paris, France.

(*f*) To separate coördinate clauses connected by one of the simple conjunctions. (Cf. Rule 231 *b*.) Coördinate clauses joined by a conjunction

Right: The train moved swiftly, but Turner arrived too late.

Right: When they at last met, and when everything was explained, they were friends again.

Note. — The observance of the foregoing rule is especially important in the case of clauses connected by the coördinating conjunction *for*. Unless a comma is placed between such clauses, the *for* is liable to be mistaken momentarily for a preposition. Comma before *for*

Misleading: It is a decided benefit for students who take exercise are not easily susceptible to sickness.

Clear: It is a decided benefit, for students who take exercise are not easily susceptible to sickness.

(*g*) To set off a dependent clause preceding its principal clause. When the dependent clause follows the principal clause, a comma is usually unnecessary (but see Rules *h* and *i*, below). Dependent clauses

Right: When darkness comes, the candles are lit.

Right: The candles are lit when darkness comes.

Right: If I can, I will remove it.

Right: I will remove it if I can.

For other examples see the text of Rules 23, 48 *a*, 52, 145.

(*h*) To indicate every distinct pause within a sentence, except the pauses for which other marks of punctuation are appropriate. See, for example, the text of Rules 2, 6, 39, 46, 51, 57, 80, 88, 91, 128, 131. Distinct pauses

To prevent mistaken junction

(*i*) To indicate separation between any sentence-elements that might, in reading, be improperly joined or misunderstood, were there no comma.

Misleading: Ever since Betty has loved the flag.
Clear: Ever since, Betty has loved the flag.
Misleading: On the path leading to the cellar steps were heard.
Clear: On the path leading to the cellar, steps were heard.

Consecutive adjectives

222. Two adjectives modifying the same noun should be separated by commas if they are coördinate in thought; but if the first adjective is felt to be superposed on the second, they should not be separated by a comma.

Right: A faithful, sincere friend. [The adjectives are coördinate in thought; both modify "friend."]
Right: A big gray cat. [The adjectives are not coördinate in thought; "gray" modifies "cat," but "big" modifies "gray cat."]

Series of the form *a, b,* and *c*

223. In a series of the form *a, b, and c,* a comma should precede the conjunction. The practice of omitting the comma before the conjunction is illogical and is not favored by the best modern usage.

Objectionable: There were blue, green and red flags. [The punctuation here couples "green" and "red" and makes them appear to be set apart, as a pair, from "blue"; whereas the intention is to make all three adjectives equally distinct.]
Right: There were blue, green, and red flags.
For other examples, see the text of Rules 3, 15, 31, 47, 122, 144 *b*, 145, 165, 174, 230.

Restrictive and non-restrictive modifiers

224. Often a phrase or clause, though grammatically a modifier of a preceding substantive, is felt to be not an adjunct to that substantive, but rather a statement added to the main assertion of the sentence. Such phrases and clauses are called non-restrictive. They should always be set off by commas.

A. Non-restrictive phrase correctly punctuated: Our national Capitol, *situated in Washington*, is a magnificent building.

B. Non-restrictive relative clause correctly punctuated: Washington Irving, *whose personality was genial and charming*, became very popular in England.

When a phrase or clause modifying a preceding substantive is felt to be essentially a modifier restricting that substantive, it is called a restrictive phrase or clause. Such phrases and clauses should not be set off by commas.

C. Restrictive phrase — commas correctly omitted: The house *situated on the northeast corner of the square* is the one you are seeking.

D. Restrictive relative clause — commas correctly omitted: Every man *who holds such an opinion* is by tendency a criminal.

Means of distinguishing restrictive from non-restrictive modifiers

NOTE. — To determine whether a given phrase or clause is restrictive or non-restrictive, the following test may be used: If the main assertion of the sentence has the same meaning when the phrase or clause is omitted as it has when the phrase or clause is present in the sentence, the phrase or clause is non-restrictive; if the omission of the phrase or clause changes the sense of the main assertion, the phrase or clause is restrictive. Thus, the sentence "Our national Capitol is a magnificent building" has the same purport as sentence *A*, above; the sentence "Washington Irving became very popular in England" has the same purport as sentence *B*, above. But "The house is the one you are seeking" has not the same purport as sentence *C*, above; nor has "Every man is by tendency a criminal" the same purport as sentence *D*, above.

(See Exercise LXXV.)

With interjections

225. After an interjection a comma is often preferred to an exclamation point.

Right: Oh, come; you'd better.
Right: But alas, this was not the case.

Before quotations

226. Expressions like *he said* preceding direct quotations in narrative, and such expressions preceding short

Unnecessary commas

direct quotations in general, should be followed by a comma. For illustrations see the *Right* examples under Rules 195 and 242. (Cf. Rule 233.)

227. Guard against the use of commas where they are not necessary. As a rule, do not put a comma where no pause is made in reading.

Bad: In the park, is a beautiful fountain.
Right: In the park is a beautiful fountain.
Bad: An incubator, is the most useful thing, a poultry man can have.
Right: An incubator is the most useful thing a poultry man can have.
For other sentences in which commas are properly dispensed with, see the text of Rules 33 *a*, 44, 54, 56, 62, 65, 148.

Misuse before a series

228. Do not put a comma, or any other mark of punctuation, before the first member of a series of sentence-elements, unless it would be required there, were there one element instead of a series.

Wrong: During my senior year I studied, Latin, Greek, and chemistry.
Right: During my senior year I studied Latin, Greek, and chemistry.
Wrong: It is valuable, (1) to the student, (2) to the statesman, and (3) to the merchant.
Right: It is valuable (1) to the student, (2) to the statesman, and (3) to the merchant.
For other examples, see the text of Rules 42, 43, 96, 116, 133, 137.

Misuse before a substantive clause

229. Put no comma before a substantive clause introduced by *that* or *how* when the governing verb (such as *said, thought, supposed*) immediately or very closely precedes the clause.

Wrong: The boatswain said, that the wheel was damaged.
Right: The boatswain said that the wheel was damaged.

Wrong: I always supposed, that the foreman was to blame.
Right: I always supposed that the foreman was to blame.

Wrong: They told us, how they had escaped.
Right: They told us how they had escaped.

230. Clauses of a compound sentence that are not joined by conjunctions may be separated by commas when the clauses are short, have no commas within themselves, and are closely parallel in substance and form; *e.g.*, — The "comma fault"

Permissible: The colonel grunted, the majors snorted, the captains swore.
Permissible: He befriended the stranger, he relieved the poor, he helped the fallen to rise.

Aside from cases of this kind, however, the use of a comma at the end of a grammatically complete assertion that is not joined to a following assertion by a conjunction is an inexcusable fault in writing. (See Exercise LXXVI.)

Bad: Neagle was assigned to act as the judge's bodyguard, such a precaution was necessary in those days.
Right: Neagle was assigned to act as the judge's bodyguard. Such a precaution was necessary in those days.

Bad: Our men had won so many games that they were over-confident, this was the cause of the recent defeat.
Right: Our men had won so many games that they were over-confident; this was the cause of the recent defeat. [See Rule 231 *a*.]

The Semicolon (;)[1]

231. Use the semicolon — Between clauses of a compound sentence

(*a*) Between clauses of a compound sentence that are not joined by a conjunction.

Right: He did not go to Canada; he went to Mexico.

[1] See Exercise LXXVII.

For other examples see the text of Rules 10, 20, 38, 42, 84, 88, 93, 138.

Caution

NOTE. — As a means of combining sentences into compound sentences, the semicolon may easily be abused. A series of sentences should not be grouped together in this way unless the compound sentence so formed has a distinct and readily-felt unity.

Before *so, therefore,* etc.

(*b*) Between clauses of a compound sentence that are joined by one of the conjunctive adverbs *so, therefore, hence, however, nevertheless, moreover, accordingly, besides, also, thus, then, still,* and *otherwise.* (See Exercise LXXVI.)

Wrong: I saw no reason for moving, therefore I stayed still.

Right: I saw no reason for moving; therefore I stayed still.

Wrong: He went below and lit the fuse, then he returned to the deck.

Right: He went below and lit the fuse; then he returned to the deck.

Conjunctive adverbs distinguished from simple conjunctions

NOTE. — Good usage makes a clear distinction, as regards punctuation, between conjunctive adverbs and simple coordinating conjunctions (e.g., *and, but, or, for*). A comma is ordinarily used (see Rule 221 *f*) between clauses of a compound sentence that are connected by a simple conjunction; but a comma should emphatically not be used between clauses connected by a conjunctive adverb. Compare the two following sentences:

Right: The president bowed, and Hughes began to speak.

Right: The president bowed; then Hughes began to speak.

Before *and, but,* etc., in certain cases

(*c*) Between clauses of a compound sentence that are joined by a simple conjunction, when those clauses are somewhat long, or when a more decided pause than a comma would furnish is desirable. See, for example, the second sentence of the foregoing note, and also the text of the notes under Rules 14 and 88.

(*d*) To separate two or more coördinate members of a simple or complex sentence when those members, or some of them, have commas within themselves. Between involved sentence-members

Right, He said that he had lent his neighbor an ax; that on the next day, needing the ax, he had gone to get it; and that his neighbor had denied borrowing it. [The three objects of "said" are separated not by commas, as ordinarily three objects of a verb should be, but by semicolons, because one of the objects has commas within itself.]

For other examples see the text of Rules 134, 135, and 137.

(*e*) To separate any two members of a simple or complex sentence when, for any reason, a comma would not make the relation between them immediately clear. Instead of a comma, to prevent obscurity

Misleading: If I were a millionaire, I would have horses, and motors, and yachts, and the whole world should minister to my pleasure.

Clear: If I were a millionaire, I would have horses, and motors, and yachts; and the whole world should minister to my pleasure.

See also the sixth sentence in the text of Rule 140 and the first in the text of Rule 142.

232. Do not use a semicolon between two members of a simple or complex sentence except in accordance with Rule 231 *d* or 231 *e*; use a comma if any punctuation is required at such a place. Improper use in place of a comma

Wrong: If you get no thanks from a person you have favored; you have no respect for him.

Right: If you get no thanks from a person you have favored, you have no respect for him.

Wrong: He was black-eyed; dark complexioned; and altogether very handsome.

Right: He was black-eyed, dark-complexioned, and altogether very handsome.

The Colon (:)

A sign of introduction

233. The colon should be used after a word, phrase, or sentence constituting an introduction to something that follows, such as a list or an extended quotation. (See Exercise LXXVII.)

Right: There are three causes: poverty, injustice, and indolence.

Right: Burke said in 1765: [A long quotation follows.]

Right: The case was this: I wouldn't and he couldn't.

Right: He did it in the following way: First, he cut an ash bough, which he bent into a hoop. Then . . .

The Question Mark (?)

Direct, not indirect questions

234. Use the question mark after a direct question, but not after an indirect question.

Bad: He asked what caused the accident?

Right: He asked what caused the accident.

Right: He asked, "What caused the accident?"

In parentheses

235. The question mark within parentheses is properly used only in serious compositions, such as historical works. Its use as a notice of humor or irony is a puerility. (Cf. Rules 250 *e* and 292.)

Right: This event occurred in 411 B.C.(?)

Bad: After his polite (?) remarks, we have nothing more to say.

Right: After his polite remarks, we have nothing more to say.

The Dash (—)[1]

236. Use the dash —

Interruptions

(*a*) When a sentence is abruptly broken off before its completion.

Right: If the scythe is rusty—by the way, did you get that scythe at Pumphrey's?

[1] See Exercise LXXVII.

(*b*) After a comma, to increase the separation slightly. Comma and dash

Right: Only one thing was wanting, — a boat.

For other examples see the text of Rules 2 *d*, 123, 124, 267, 304, 340.

(*c*) As a substitute for parenthesis marks. Parenthetic use

Right: I dressed — you may not believe this, but it is true — in ten minutes.

(*d*) Before a word summarizing the preceding part of a sentence. With summarizing words

Right: If you go to bed early, get up early, never loiter, or trifle, always employ periods of enforced idleness in serious thought or instructive reading, — if you do all this, you will be derided by the Omicron Pi Chi fraternity.

For other examples see the text of Rule 167 and the note to Rule 16.

(*e*) Before a repetition or modification having the effect of an afterthought. Before an expression having the effect of an afterthought

Right: Oh yes, he was polite — polite as a Chesterfield — obsequious in fact.

See also the text of Rule 23.

(*f*) After the word immediately preceding a sentence-element that is set apart on the page from the first part of the sentence. For illustration, see the text of Rules 4, 221, 231, 236, 240, 248, and 250, and the *Right* examples under Rule 213. When a sentence-member is set apart on the page

Note. — If another mark of punctuation precedes the sentence-member set apart, the dash may be dispensed with. See the text of Rule 14 and the *Right* examples under Rules 211 and 212.

237. Do not use dashes indiscriminately, where commas, periods, or other marks of punctuation belong. Indiscriminate use

Parenthesis Marks ( )

Relative position of other marks

238. When a sentence contains matter set off by parenthesis marks, a comma, a period, or other mark of punctuation belonging to the part before such matter, should be placed after the second parenthesis mark, not elsewhere.

Wrong: I will ask him by telephone, (assuming he has a telephone) and I think he will agree (though I may be mistaken.)

Wrong: I will ask him by telephone (assuming he has a telephone,) and I think he will agree, (though I may be mistaken).

Right: I will ask him by telephone (assuming he has a telephone), and I think he will agree (though I may be mistaken).

For other examples see the text of Rules 16 *a*, 16 *b*, 90 *g*.

Incorrect use of commas with parentheses

239. A comma should not be used with parenthesis marks unless it would be required were there no parenthetic matter.

Wrong: The sheriff gave him (as his oath required), the most effective help. [The sentence "The sheriff gave him the most effective help" requires no comma after "him."]

Right: The sheriff gave him (as his oath required) the most effective help.

For other examples see the text of Rules 27, 66, and 69.

Misuse in general

240. Do not use parenthesis marks to enclose matter that is not parenthetical. Do not use them —

Misuse for emphasis

(*a*) To emphasize a word; italicize (see Rule 284).

Bad: "The man (who) they thought was dead surprised them" is correct.

Right: "The man *who* they thought was dead surprised them" is correct.

Misuse with words discussed

(*b*) To enclose a word about which something is said as a word. Such words should be italicized (see Rule 284).

Wrong: (Party) is often incorrectly used for (person).

Right: *Party* is often incorrectly used for *person*.

(*c*) To indicate the title of a book; italicize (see Rule 284). Misuse with literary titles

Wrong: Garland's story (Among the Corn Rows) is pathetic.

Right: Garland's story *Among the Corn Rows* is pathetic.

(*d*) To enclose a letter, number, or symbol, unless it is used parenthetically. Misuse with letters and symbols

Bad: A (V) shaped plate of steel.

Right: A v-shaped plate of steel.

Bad: It is marked with the figure (2)

Right: It is marked with the figure 2.

(*e*) To cancel a word or passage (see Rule 216). Misuse for canceling

Brackets [ ]

241. Square brackets, [ ], are used to enclose a word or words interpolated in a quotation by the person quoting. Words enclosed in parenthesis marks, ( ), occurring in a quotation, are understood to belong to the quotation; words enclosed in brackets, [ ], are understood to be interpolated by the writer quoting. Words interpolated in a quotation

Right: "I would gladly," writes Landor, "see our language enriched . . . At present [in the eighteenth century] we recur to the Latin and reject the Saxon . . ."

Quotation Marks (" ")

242. Use quotation marks to enclose a direct quotation, but not to enclose an indirect quotation. For direct, not indirect quotations

Wrong: He said "that he was grieved."

Right: He said that he was grieved.

Right: He said, "I am grieved."

243. Do not fail to put quotation marks at the beginning and the end of every quotation. (See Exercise LXXIX.) Omission

Misuse within a quotation

244. Do not punctuate sentences of a single speech as if they were separate speeches. (See Exercise LXXIX.)

Bad: She said, "Is this the truth?" "Then I must tell my husband." "He ought to know."
Right: She said, "Is this the truth? Then I must tell my husband. He ought to know."

Relative position of question or exclamation mark

245. When a quotation mark and a question or exclamation mark both follow the same word, —

(*a*) The question or exclamation mark should stand first if it applies to the quotation and not to the sentence containing the quotation.

Wrong: He said, "Are you hurt"?
Right: He said, "Are you hurt?"

(*b*) The quotation mark should stand first if the other mark applies, not to the quotation, but to the sentence containing the quotation.

Wrong: Did the letter say, "Come to-night at ten?"
Right: Did the letter say, "Come to-night at ten"?

(*c*) In either case no comma or period should be used in addition to the quotation mark and the question or exclamation mark.

Wrong: He cried "Fire!", and began to run.
Right: He cried "Fire!" and began to run.

Wrong: Did he say "I object."?
Right: Did he say, "I object"?

(See Exercise LXXIX.)

Quotation within a quotation

246. A quotation within a quotation is marked by single quotation marks; one within that by double marks.

Wrong: I repeated those lines of Tennyson,

"Thou shalt hear the "Never, never," whispered by the phantom years,
And a song from out the distance in the ringing of thine ears,"

until I knew them by heart.

Right: I repeated those lines of Tennyson,

> "Thou shalt hear the 'Never, never,' whispered by the phantom years,
> And a song from out the distance in the ringing of thine ears,"

until I knew them by heart.

Wrong: "Then," continued Brightman, "the captain shouted, "Cast off!"

Right: "Then," continued Brightman, "the captain shouted, 'Cast off!'"

Quotations of several paragraphs

247. When a quotation consists of several paragraphs (see Rule 212), quotation marks should be placed at the beginning of each paragraph, and at the end of the quotation; not elsewhere, except in accordance with Rule 261 *a*. For illustration, see the example under Rule 212.

With unfamiliar technical terms

248. Quotation marks may sometimes be used to mark a technical term presumably unfamiliar to the reader. (See, for example, the text of Rule 256 and the *Right* example under *Element* in the Glossary.) But —

Familiar technical terms

NOTE. — No such marking is needed for technical or quasi-technical terms that are perfectly familiar to the reader. None is ordinarily needed, for instance, for *wire-puller*, *boss*, *off-year*, *touch-down*, *kick-off*, *haze*, *corner the market*.

Slang and nicknames

249. Quotation marks may sometimes be used to indicate apology for slang or nicknames. But note:

Good English mistaken for slang

(*a*) No such apology is needed for *hard hit*, *brace up*, *rough it*, *to duck*, *to oust*, *to loaf*, *to cut a figure*, *the whys and wherefores*, *the forties*, *willy nilly*, *day dreams*, *proxy*, *bugbear*, *humbug*, *hoax*, *tomfoolery*, *bamboozle*, *whoop*, *ninny*, *milksop*, *skinflint*, *parson*, and other good English expressions vulgarly supposed to be slang.

Apology out of place

(*b*) In a humorous or colloquial context such apology for slang or for nicknames is artistically inconsistent with the style, and obstructs the legitimate purpose of the style.

Inartistic: When radicalism "threw up its hat" for "Rob" Rowland, "rough-house," and reform, conservatism "took to the tall timbers." "Rob," though "cock of the walk" in the capital, has been "sassed" by his home paper, which attributes his influence to hypnotism and "hot air."

Improved in effectiveness: When radicalism threw up its hat for Rob Rowland, rough-house, and reform, conservatism took to the tall timbers. Rob, though cock of the walk in the capital, has been sassed by his home paper, which attributes his influence to hypnotism and hot air.

Nicknames that are virtually proper names

(*c*) The nicknames of persons in real life or in fiction who are known by nicknames altogether, or as commonly as by their proper names, should not be enclosed in quotation marks.

Wrong: "Tom" Johnson, "Bathhouse John," "Teddy" Roosevelt, "Jim" Corbett, "Prexy" Harper, and the Honorable "Hinkey Dink" were present.

Right: Tom Johnson, Bathhouse John, Teddy Roosevelt, Jim Corbett, Prexy Harper, and the Honorable Hinkey Dink were present.

Wrong: Two women, the "Duchess" and "Mother" Shipton, and two men, Mr. Oakhurst and "Uncle Billy," were ordered to leave town.

Right: Two women, the Duchess and Mother Shipton, and two men, Mr. Oakhurst and Uncle Billy, were ordered to leave town.

Wrong: As I was "bucking" for "Perky's" "quiz," I was interrupted by "Fatty" Holmes and "Smudge" Williams, who refused to "clear out." [See Rule *b*, above.]

Right: As I was bucking for Perky's quiz, I was interrupted by Fatty Holmes and Smudge Williams, who refused to clear out.

Sundry misuses:

250. Do not use quotation marks —

With the title of a composition

(*a*) To enclose the title at the head of a composition, unless the title is a quotation.

(*b*) To enclose proper names, including names of animals. With proper names

Wrong: I expect to go to "Ober-Ammergau."
Right: I expect to go to Ober-Ammergau.

Wrong: "Thomas" and "Rover" were good friends.
Right: Thomas and Rover were good friends.

(*c*) To enclose proverbial expressions that do not constitute grammatically and logically complete statements. With proverbs

Wrong: It was "nipped in the bud."
Right: It was nipped in the bud.

Wrong: He seemed to be "as mad as a March hare."
Right: He seemed to be as mad as a March hare.

(*d*) To enclose words coined *extempore*.

Wrong: The manning and "womaning" of the enterprise will be difficult. With words coined *extempore*
Right: The manning and womaning of the enterprise will be difficult.

Wrong: It is not bronchitis or peritonitis or any of the "itises."
Right: It is not bronchitis or peritonitis or any of the itises.

(*e*) To serve the undignified and inartistic purpose of labeling your own humor or irony. (Cf. Rules 235 and 292.) For labeling humor

Bad: Such is the ardor of this "pious" Hotspur.
Right: Such is the ardor of this pious Hotspur.

Bad: Senator Platt's speech on the bill was a sort of "funeral oration."
Right: Senator Platt's speech on the bill was a sort of funeral oration.

(*f*) For no reason at all. Use without any reason

Bad: If the Creator in his "power and munificence" is good to me, I shall gain "distinguished success."
Right: If the Creator in his power and munificence is good to me, I shall gain distinguished success.

The Apostrophe (')

Possessive case

251. In the possessive singular of regularly inflected nouns an apostrophe should (with the exception stated in Rule 252) precede the *s*; in the possessive plural of such nouns an apostrophe should follow the *s*.

Right: The boy's cap.
Right: The boys' caps.

Nouns ending in *s*

252. Do not form the possessive singular of a noun ending in *s* by putting an apostrophe before the *s*; put an apostrophe after the *s*, or add *'s*.

Wrong: Dicken's novels. Burn's poems.
Right: Dickens' novels, or Dickens's novels.
Burns' poems, or Burns's poems.
Right: Charles's horse. Mr. Jones's house.

Misuse with *its*, etc.

253. Never use an apostrophe with the possessive adjectives *hers, its, ours, yours, theirs.*

With contractions

254. In a contracted word an apostrophe should stand in the place of the omitted letter or letters, not elsewhere.

Wrong: Hav'nt, do'nt, does'nt, ca'nt, is'nt.
Right: Have n't, don't, does n't, can't, is n't.

In forming plurals

255. The plural of letters of the alphabet and of numerical symbols is formed by adding *'s* to the letter or symbol. The plural of a word considered *as a word* may also be formed in the same way. But the regular plural of a noun should never be formed by adding *'s*.

Right: His *U*'*s* were like *V*'*s* and his 2's like *Z*'*s*.
Right: In your letter there are too many *I*'*s* and also too many *and*'*s*.
Wrong: The Powers's, the Jones's, the Waters's and the Rogers's sold piano's and folio's.
Right: The Powerses, the Joneses, the Waterses, and the Rogerses sold pianos and folios.

The Hyphen (-)

Compound words

256. No simple rule can be given for determining whether a compound word should be hyphened or written "solid." One must simply learn, from observation and from dictionaries, what is the correct practice in individual cases. Note that the following words should not be hyphened: *together, without, nevertheless, moreover, inasmuch, instead, childhood, farewell, wardrobe, chipmunk, nickname, surname, midnight, railroad, misprint, pronoun, semicolon, withstand, outstretch, rewrite,* and the other words enumerated in Rule 164.

To-day, to-morrow, etc.

257. Always hyphen *to-day, to-night, to-morrow, good-bye.*

At the beginning of a line

258. In dividing a word at the end of a line (see Rules 263–266, below), place a hyphen after the first element of the word, and there only; never put a hyphen at the beginning of a line.

Miscellaneous Rules

Punctuation with *such as*

259. When *such as* is used to introduce an example or several examples, it should be preceded by a comma (see Rule 221 *h*), a comma and dash (see Rule 236 *b*), or a semicolon (see Rule 231 *e*), and should be followed by no mark of punctuation, unless a parenthetical expression is inserted between the *such as* and the words that it introduces.

Right: I read many historical novels, such as *Romola, Rienzi,* and *Quo Vadis.*

See also the text of Rules 18, 144 *b*, 145, 146, 233.

Punctuation with *namely, viz.*, etc.

260. In introducing an example or an explanation with one of the expressions *namely, viz., e.g., that is,* and *i.e.*, apply the following rules:

(*a*) The expression should always be followed by a comma.

Wrong: I selected it for two reasons namely: because it was well made, and because it was inexpensive.
Right: I selected it for two reasons: namely, because it was well made, and because it was inexpensive.
See also the text of Rules 16 *a*, 106, and 136, and the note to Rule 3.

(*b*) When the expression introduces a sentence or a principal clause, the expression should be preceded by a period or a semicolon (see Rules 230, 231 *a*).

Right: There is a vital difference between them; *i.e.*, the Greek is an artist, and the Roman is a statesman.
See also the text of Rules 111, 90 *g*.

(*c*) When the expression introduces a merely appositive member, or several such, the expression should be preceded by a semicolon (see Rule 231 *e*), by a comma and a dash (see Rule 236 *b*), or by a colon (see Rule 233).

Right: They arrested the man who was really responsible, — namely, the cashier.
Right: There are three parties: namely, Tories, Whigs, and Radicals.
See also the text of Rules 2 *d*, 106, 123, 124, 269.

NOTE. — When the expression and the words it introduces are enclosed in parentheses, the foregoing Rules *b* and *c* do not apply. See the text of Rules 99, 121, 136.

Quotations with *said he* interpolated:

261. When an expression like *said he* is interpolated within a quotation or placed after it, the following rules apply:

Said he excluded

(*a*) The expression should not be included within the quotation marks at the beginning and the end of the quotation.

Wrong: "If that is true, he said, I am lost."
Right: "If that is true," he said, "I am lost."

Marks after part preceding *said he*

(*b*) The quoted words preceding the expression should be followed by a question or exclamation mark if they

form a complete interrogatory or exclamatory sentence; otherwise by a comma; never by a period or semicolon.

Wrong: "Will you help," he asked?
Right: "Will you help?" he asked.

Wrong: "I will help." he answered.
Right: "I will help," he answered.

Wrong: "I will help you;" he said, "you deserve it."
Right: "I will help you," he said; "you deserve it."

Marks after *said he:* Period

(*c*) If the quoted words preceding the expression form a complete sentence, a period should follow the expression, even if a question or exclamation mark follows the words preceding.

Wrong: "Won't you come?" she said, "we need you."
Right: "Won't you come?" she said. "We need you."

Semicolon

(*d*) If the quoted words preceding the expression would be followed, but for the expression, by a semicolon, a semicolon should follow the expression.

Right: "He didn't go to Canada," the teller informed me; "he went to Mexico."

Comma

(*e*) In every case in which a period or a semicolon is not required (according to Rules *c* and *d*, above) after the expression, a comma should follow the expression.

Right: "I am," growled the assassin, "your doomsman."

Said he not capitalized

(*f*) The expression should not be capitalized.

Right: "Go to the treasury," said the king, "and help yourself."

Capitalizing of part following *said he*

(*g*) The part of the quotation following the expression should not be capitalized unless it is a new sentence.

Wrong: "Hammer on the window," advised the policeman, "Until he gets up."
Right: "Hammer on the window," advised the policeman, "until he gets up."

See also the *Right* examples under Rules *d*, *e*, and *f*.

(See Exercise LXXIX.)

Marks of punctuation at the beginning of lines

262. Never put a period, a comma, a semicolon, a colon, an exclamation point, or a question mark at the beginning of a line; put it instead at the end of the preceding line.

Syllabication

263. In dividing a word at the end of a line, make the separation between syllables, not elsewhere.

Rules for syllabication:

There is no uniform principle for determining just what are the several syllables of any given word; one must rely largely on learning, by observation and by reference to dictionaries, what is the correct syllabication in individual cases. Nevertheless, a good many errors may be avoided by observing the following simple rules:

Follow pronunciation

(*a*) Do not set apart from each other combinations of letters the separate pronunciation of which is impossible or unnatural.

A. Wrong: Exc-ursion; go-ndola; illustr-ate; instr-uction; pun-ctuation.
Right: Ex-cursion; gon-dola; illus-trate; in-struc-tion; punc-tuation.

B. Wrong: Prostr-ate; pri-nciple; abs-urd; fini-shing; sugge-stion.
Right: Pros-trate; prin-ciple; ab-surd; finish-ing; sugges-tion.

C. Wrong: Nat-ion; conclus-ion; invent-ion; introd-uction; abbr-eviat-ion.
Right: Na-tion; conclu-sion; inven-tion; intro-duc-tion; abbre-via-tion.

D. Wrong: Diffic-ult; tob-acco; exc-ept; univ-ersity; dislo-dgment.
Right: Diffi-cult; to-bacco; ex-cept; uni-versity; dislodg-ment.

(*b*) As a rule, divide between a prefix and the letter following it.

Prefixes

Wrong: Bet-ween; pref-ix; antec-edent; conf-ine; delight.
Right: Be-tween; pre-fix; ante-cedent; con-fine; de-light.

(*c*) As a rule, divide between a suffix and the letter preceding it. Divide, *e.g.*, before *-ing, -ly, -ment, -ed,* (when it is pronounced as a separate syllable, as in *delight-ed*), *-ish, -able, -er, -est.* Suffixes

Right: Lov-ing; love-ly; judg-ment; invit-ed; Jew-ish; punish-able; strong-er; strong-est.

(*d*) As a rule, when a consonant is doubled, divide between the two letters. This rule often takes precedence of Rule *c* above. Doubled consonants

Right: rub-ber; ab-breviation; oc-casion; ad-dition, af-finity; Rus-sian; expres-sion; omis-sion; commit-tee; ex-cel-lent; stop-ping; drop-ping; ship-ping; equip-ping.

(*e*) Never divide in the midst of *th* pronounced as in *the* or *thin; sh* as in *push; ph* as in *phonograph; ng* as in *sing; gn* as in *sign; tch* as in *fetch;* and *gh* pronounced as in *rough*, or silent. Never divide *ck* except in accordance with Rule *f*, below. The digraphs *th*, *ch*, etc., not to be divided

Wrong: cat-holic; ras-hness; disc-harge; diap-hragm; gin-gham.
Right: cath-olic; rash-ness; dis-charge; dia-phragm; ging-ham.

Wrong: consig-nment; wat-ching; doug-hty.
Right: consign-ment; watch-ing; dough-ty.

The divisions *post-humous* (see page 225), *dis-habille* (see page 225), *Lap-ham, nightin-gale, distin-guish, sin-gle, sig-nature,* and *Leg-horn,* form no exceptions to the foregoing rule, for in them *th, sh,* etc., are pronounced each as two distinct sounds.

(*f*) In dividing words like *edible, possible, bridle, trifle, beagle, crackle, twinkle, staple, entitle,* do not Final *le* not to be set apart

set *le* apart by itself; always place with it the preceding consonant. (But see Rule 266.)

Right: edi-ble; possi-ble; bri-dle; tri-fle; bea-gle; crac-kle; etc.

NOTE. — To Rules *b*, *c*, and *d*, above, there are exceptions. For a statement of these, and for a comprehensive treatment of syllabication, the reader is referred to the Introduction of Webster's International Dictionary.

Monosyllables

264. Never divide a monosyllable.

Bad: Tho-ugh, stre-ngth.

A syllable of one letter

265. Do not divide a syllable of one letter from the rest of the word.

Wrong: Man-y, a-gainst, a-long, ston-y.

Awkward and too frequent division

266. Dividing words at the end of lines should be avoided as much as possible. And such awkward divisions as the following should never be made:

Bad: eve-ry, ev-en, on-ly, eight-een.

Abbreviations

Generally objectionable

267. Abbreviations are in bad taste in literary compositions of any kind, including letters. A few abbreviations, — such as *i.e.*, *e.g.*, *q.v.*, *viz.*, *etc.*, *A.D.*, *B.C.*, *a.m.*, *p.m.*, — are excepted from the rule, being commonly used in good literature. Use no abbreviations except those which you know are employed, not by the newspapers or the writers of commonplace business letters, but by recognized masters of English prose.

Bad: Last summer I worked for the Chandler Mfg. Co. in Casey, Ill. Casey is on the C. and E. I. R.R.

Right: Last summer I worked for the Chandler Manufacturing Company in Casey, Illinois. Casey is on the Chicago and Eastern Illinois Railroad.

268. Observe that many abbreviations that are proper when combined with other expressions are improper when standing alone. Thus: Abbreviations right in some places; wrong elsewhere

Right: I came at ten p.m.
Vulgar: I came this p.m.

Right: He lives in room No. 12.
Bad: Let me know the No. of your room.

Right: My dear Dr. Hart.
Vulgar: My dear Dr.

Observe also that many abbreviations (such as *vol.*, *ch.*, *p.*, *Co.*, *ed.*) that are permissible in footnotes, parenthetic citations, and similar places, are not permissible in formally constructed sentences.

269. Abbreviation of titles is, in general, inelegant and objectionable. Spell out *Professor*, *President*, *Captain*, *General*, *Colonel*, *Reverend*, etc. Some abbreviations are, however, always proper; *viz.*, (1) *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, *Messrs.*, and *Dr.*, when prefixed to names; (2) *Esq.*, and the initial abbreviations *D.D.*, *Ph.D.*, etc., when suffixed to names. (See Rule 268.) Abbreviation of titles

The Representation of Numbers

270. Do not spell out (1) cardinal numbers designating dates, (2) cardinal numbers designating the pages or divisions (*i.e.*, parts, chapters, paragraphs, sections, rules, etc.) of a book or a document, or (3) the street numbers of houses. Dates, folios, etc., and house numbers

Wrong: On October thirteen, eighteen hundred and eighty-one, I was born at three hundred and sixty-two Adams Street. See page nine hundred and sixteen of our family Bible.

Right: On October 13, 1881, I was born at 362 Adams Street. See page 916 of our family Bible.

NOTE. — Ordinal numbers designating days of a month may be either spelled out or represented by figures.

Right: The thirteenth of May fell on Friday.
Right: The 13th of May fell on Friday.

Ordinal numbers designating pages or divisions of a book or document are governed by Rule 272.

Sums of money

271. In designating a sum of money in connected discourse, apply the following rules:

The sign $ improper for sums less than a dollar

(*a*) Do not use the sign $ for sums less than one dollar.

Wrong: It costs $0.20.
Right: It costs twenty cents.

The expression .00 never to be used

(*b*) Do not write .00.

Wrong: He subscribed $342.00 to the fund.
Right: He subscribed $342 to the fund.

Fractional sums

(*c*) For a sum amounting to a number of dollars and a number of cents, always use the sign $ and figures.

Right: It costs $3.18.

Even sums: Frequent

(*d*) If several sums are mentioned within a short space, use figures for all, putting the sign $ before all numbers representing dollars.

Right: My room costs $3 a week and my board $4.50; my contribution to the church is 30 cents; my incidental expenses range from $9.35 to $12.50 a month.

Isolated: A sum in cents

(*e*) In case of an isolated mention of a sum in cents, spell out the number.

Right: The price is ninety cents.

A sum in dollars

(*f*) In case of an isolated mention of a sum in dollars without a fraction, spell out a number expressed in one or two words, such as *three, sixteen, two hundred, six thousand, one million;* for other numbers, such as 102, 350, 1130, 1,500,000, use the sign $ and figures.

Right: He contributed twenty thousand dollars.
Right: It sold for eighteen hundred dollars.
Right: His fortune amounts to $72,500.

272. In representing, in connected discourse, numbers other than those treated in Rules 270 and 271, apply the following rules: Numbers not treated in Rules 270, 271

(*a*) In case several numbers are mentioned in a short space, use figures for all. See for example the text of Rules 203–208, where numbers occur frequently and representation of them by words would inconvenience the reader. Frequent numbers —figures

(*b*) If the numbers to be represented are not frequent, spell out numbers that may be expressed in one or two words, such as *eighteen, ninety-seven, two hundred, eighteen hundred, twenty thousand, one million, fifty million;* use figures for those that require three or more words, such as 108, 233, 1,250, 18,231, 1,500,230. Numbers not frequent

Wrong: The college is 25 miles from Columbus and has 900 students.
Right: The college is twenty-five miles from Columbus and has nine hundred students.

Wrong: In this city there are four hundred and thirty-four saloons to three hundred and eighty-five thousand, one hundred and ninety-two people.
Right: In this city there are 434 saloons to 385,192 people.

Wrong: He lives on 72d street.
Right: He lives on Seventy-second Street. [See Rules 277 and 308.]

273. From Rule 272 *b* it follows that a number representing a person's age or one designating an hour of the day should nearly always (see Rule 272 *a*) be spelled out. Ages, and hours of the day

Right: At twelve o'clock all the children below eight years of age are sent home.

274. A sum of money or a number that is spelled out should not be repeated in parenthesized figures, except in legal or commercial letters and instruments. When such Parenthetic repetition of numbers

repetition is made, (*a*) a parenthesized sum should stand at the end of the expression that it repeats, not elsewhere; and (*b*) a parenthesized number should stand immediately after the number that it repeats, not elsewhere.

Wrong: I enclose ($10) ten dollars. [*a*]
Wrong: I enclose ten ($10) dollars. [*b*]

Right: I enclose ten dollars ($10). [*a*]
Right: I enclose ten (10) dollars. [*b*]

Capitals

Proper names
Days and months
Not seasons
North, *south*, etc.

275. Capitalize proper nouns in general, including the names of the days of the week and the names of the months. But note:

(*a*) The words *spring*, *summer*, *midsummer*, *autumn*, *fall*, *winter*, and *midwinter* should not be capitalized.

(*b*) *North*, *south*, *east*, *west*, and their compounds (*north-west*, etc.) and derivatives (*northern*, etc.) should not be capitalized except when they designate divisions of the country.

Right: As we sailed north we saw a ship going west.
Right: The West is prosperous. — The people of the South are migrating westward. — The Northern delegates clashed with the Southern.

(See Exercise LXXVIII.)

Titles of persons

276. Titles of persons should be capitalized when they are used in connection with proper names. When used otherwise than in connection with proper names, titles of governmental officers of high rank should be capitalized; other titles should not. (See Exercise LXXIX.)

Right: There go Professor Cox and Colonel Henry. — A certain professor became a colonel in the volunteer army. — The President and the Postmaster-General sent for the postmaster of our town and the secretary of our society.

277. Capitalize *club, company, society, college, high school, railroad, county, river, lake, park, street,* or any other common noun, when it is made a component part of a proper name; not otherwise. (See Exercise LXXIX.) Common-noun elements of proper names

Wrong: I went to that College one year.
Right: I went to that college one year.

Wrong: Do you mean Hamilton college?
Right: Do you mean Hamilton College?

278. Capitalize nouns and adjectives of language or race, such as *German, Latin, Indian,* etc. (See Exercise LXXVIII.) Words of race and language

279. Capitalize the important words of literary titles. Words in literary titles

Right: I read *The Light that Failed* and *A Tale of Two Cities.*

280. Capitalize the first word of a sentence. This rule applies in general to quoted sentences; but not to a quoted sentence from which words are omitted at the beginning, nor to a quoted sentence-element incorporated in an original sentence. (See Exercise LXXIX.) At the beginning of a sentence or quotation

Wrong: The conductor cried, "hands off!"
Right: The conductor cried, "Hands off!"

Wrong: It seemed to be "Without form and void."
Right: It seemed to be "without form and void."

See also Rule 38, note, and the last sentence in the note to Rule 88.

281. Capitalize the first word of every line of poetry. See the *Right* examples under Rules 209–211. At the beginning of lines of poetry

282. Do not capitalize a clause following a semicolon. Misuse after a semicolon

Wrong: Send him to the library; His father wants to speak to him.
Right: Send him to the library; his father wants to speak to him.

Use without reason

283. Do not capitalize words which there is no reason for capitalizing, such as *locomotive, forest, organ, rhetoric, mathematics, history, whooping cough, landlady, bulldog, electricity, citizen, flour mill, profession, gold mine, teachers' convention.*

Italics

Representation in MS.

284. To italicize a word in a manuscript, draw one straight line below it.

Italics with titles of books, etc.

285. Italicize titles of literary, musical, and artistic works, and of periodicals. Do not italicize the author's name.

Right: Walter Scott's *The Talisman*, Rider Haggard's *King Solomon's Mines*, Talfourd's *Ion*, and the *Atlantic Monthly* furnished his principal amusement.

NOTE. — It is permissible to enclose titles in quotation marks instead of italicizing them; but the simpler and better approved practice is to italicize.

Titles beginning with *the*: Single works

286. If the title of a single literary, musical, or artistic work begins with *the*, this word should not be omitted in writing the title, and it should be capitalized and italicized.

Wrong: Do you like Kipling's *Man Who Was* and Chaminade's *Silver Ring?*
Right: Do you like Kipling's *The Man Who Was* and Chaminade's *The Silver Ring?*

Wrong: I felt depressed after reading the *House of Mirth.*
Right: I felt depressed after reading *The House of Mirth.*

Periodicals

287. In writing the name of a newspaper or other periodical, however, a *the* limiting the noun of the title should not be capitalized or italicized even if it is part of

the title; and the name of a city modifying adjectively the noun of the title should not be italicized.

Right: She found there some copies of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, the *Evening Telegraph*, the *Century Magazine*, the New York *Evening Post*, and the Madison (Wisconsin) *Democrat*.

288. Italicize names of ships. Names of ships

Right: I cut the *Hispaniola* from her anchor.

289. When a word is spoken of *as a word*, — not used to represent the thing or idea that it ordinarily represents, and not quoted, — it should be italicized. When a word is spoken of as a quoted word, it should usually be inclosed in quotation marks and not italicized. Italics with words discussed

Right: The misuse of *grand*, *awful*, and *nice* is a common fault.

Right: In the expression "we, the people," "people" is in apposition with "we."

NOTE. — With words discussed, it is permissible to use quotation marks instead of italics, even when the words are not quoted; and it is sometimes necessary and advisable to do so. In this book, for example, quotation marks are used with incorrect expressions discussed, because this practice helps, in some cases, to distinguish the wrong phraseology from the right. But the better practice in general is to italicize.

290. Italicize unnaturalized foreign words introduced into an English context. With foreign words

Right: He is a *bona fide* purchaser.

291. Avoid the habit of frequently italicizing words for emphasis; do not emphasize a word in this way unless there is some especially good reason, — as, for For emphasis

instance, the fact that obscurity would result from lack of emphasis.

Bad: The curse of this age is *commercialism* coupled with *hypocrisy*.

Right: The curse of this age is commercialism coupled with hypocrisy.

For examples of necessary emphasis by italics, see Rules 2 *e* and 289.

Improper use for marking humor

292. Do not italicize for the purpose of calling attention to your humor or irony; this practice is undignified and inartistic. (Cf. Rules 235 and 250 *e*.)

Bad: The villain in the play was *charming*.

Right: The villain in the play was charming.

III. ANALYTICAL OUTLINES

Form of Titles

293. In an analytical outline, make all the titles, as far as possible, in the form of nouns, with or without modifiers. *E.g.*, write "Rapidity of Movement" rather than "Moves Rapidly." Nouns, not verbs

Numbering and Arrangement of Titles

294. Number and indent the titles of an outline according to the following method:

THE GOVERNMENT OF SWITZERLAND

Specimen outline

I. Introduction: Value to Americans of a knowledge of Swiss institutions.

II. The legislative department.
   1. General plan.
   2. The National Council.
      a. Apportionment.
      b. Elections.
   3. The Council of States.
   4. Powers of the legislature.

III. The executive department.
   1. General plan.
   2. Organization in detail.
   3. Executive powers. — Comparison of Swiss and American executives.

IV. The judicial department: the constitutional court.

Irregular alignment

295. Place coördinate titles at the same distance from the left-hand margin.

The Terms "Introduction," "Conclusion," and "Body."

Misuse of *Introduction* and *Conclusion*

296. Do not entitle the first division *Introduction* nor the last *Conclusion* unless their material is distinct from the body.

Wrong outline for an account of a sleigh-ride:

I. Introduction: the start.
II. The journey out.
III. Conclusion: the return.

Right:

I. Introduction: winter in Dakota.
II. The start.
III. The journey out.
IV. The return.
V. Conclusion: comparison of sleighing and other sports.

Body or *Discussion* not to be used

297. Do not use the title *Body* or *Discussion;* place the titles belonging to the body, or discussion, of an essay flush with the left-hand margin, as in the outline on page 121.

Over-minute Subdivision

Over-minuteness

298. Do not indicate minute and unimportant divisions.

Bad:

1. Situation of building.
   a. In Ames County.
   b. On a hill.
   c. Facing east.

Right:

1. Situation of building.

Certain Illogical Practices

299. Do not write as a subtitle what is logically a part of the governing title; join it to the governing title or else omit it.

Part of a title written like a subtitle

Bad:

I. Founding of the city.
    1. By Dionysius Jōnes.
II. Its principal industry.
    1. Piano manufacturing.

Right:

I. Founding of the city.
II. Principal industry, piano manufacturing.

Bad:

I. Ancestors.
    1. Scotch.
II. Birthplace.
    1. Farm in Indiana.

Right:

I. Scotch ancestors.
II. Birthplace: description of the Indiana farm.

See also titles I and IV in the outline on page 121.

300. Do not write as the first subtitle what is logically the second or third; write it as a memorandum after the governing title, or else insert the subtitles that should logically precede it.

Second or third subtitle written like first

Bad:

I. Situation.
    1. Advantages.

Right:

I. Situation: its advantages.

Also right:

I. Situation.
    1. Geographical location.
    2. Advantages.

Bad:

II. Attempts to destroy it.
1. Why they failed.

Right:

II. Attempts to destroy it.
1. The first attempt.
2. The attempt of 1901.
3. Reason for the failure of all attempts.

See also title III, 3, of the outline on page 121.

Coördinate title written like a subtitle

301. Do not write as a subtitle what is logically coordinate with the preceding title.

Bad [The rule is violated in titles II, 1, and II, 1, *a*]:

I. The departure.
II. The arrival in the city.
1. Journey to the store.
a. Purchases.
III. Return home.

Right:

I. Departure.
II. Arrival in the city.
III. Journey to the store.
IV. Purchases.
V. Return.

Also right:

I. Departure.
II. Experiences in the city.
1. Arrival.
2. Journey to the store.
3. Purchases.
III. Return.

Subtitle written like a coordinate title

302. Do not place a subtitle coördinate with its governing title.

Bad [The rule is violated in title II]:

I. Disadvantages of football.
1. Physical harm.
2. Distraction from studies.
II. Encouragement of gambling.

Right:

II. Disadvantages of football.
    1. Physical harm.
    2. Distraction from studies.
    3. Encouragement of gambling.

303. Do not write the title of the composition like the title of a division. Main title written like sub-title

Bad:

I. Shipbuilding in Maine.
    1. Introduction.
    2. Principal seats.
    3. Methods.
        etc.

Right:

SHIPBUILDING IN MAINE

I. Introduction.
II. Principal seats.
III. Methods.
    etc.

IV. LETTER WRITING

Letters in the First Person

The Heading

Address before date

304. The first member of a correct letter written in the first person is the heading, — *i.e.*, a statement of the address of the writer and the date of writing. The address should precede the date.

Wrong: June 4, 1904,
Groveport, Ohio.

Right: Groveport, Ohio, June 4, 1904.

The address: Insufficient address

305. The address in the heading should be such as would be sufficient for a postal direction.

Insufficient: Chicago, Illinois.

Right: 212 State Street,
Chicago, Illinois.

Street direction before city

306. If the address contains a street direction, this should precede the name of the city.

Wrong: Columbus, Ohio.
28 High Street.

Right: 28 High Street,
Columbus, Ohio.

House numbers

307. A house number should be written in Arabic figures and should be preceded by no word or sign.

Wrong: Fifteen H Street.
Wrong: # 15 H Street.
Right: 15 H Street.

Numbers of streets

308. Street numbers less than one hundred should be spelled out. (See Rule 272 *b*.)

Right: 285 Forty-second Street. [See Rule 277.]

309. In writing a street direction do not omit *Street.* Omission of *Street*

Wrong: 17 Main.
Right: 17 Main Street.

310. The date should consist of the name (not the number) of the month, the number of the day of the month, and the complete number of the year. The date: Completeness

Inelegant: 3/21/'06.
Right: March 21, 1906.

311. All the numbers in the date should be written in Arabic figures, not represented by words. (See Rule 270. But cf. Rule 338.) Figures, not words

Wrong: March the twenty-first, nineteen hundred and six.
Right: March 21, 1906.

312. The number of the day should not be followed by *st, nd, rd, d,* or *th.* *St, nd,* etc., not to be used

Undesirable: March 21st, 1906.
Right: March 21, 1906.

313. Do not use any abbreviations in the heading. It is permissible to waive this rule in business letters, but it is more dignified and decorous to observe it invariably. Abbreviations not to be used

Undesirable: Norton, Mass., Jan. 3, 1906.
Right: Norton, Massachusetts,
January 3, 1906.

314. The entire heading, if short, may be written on one line. If two lines are necessary, the date should be written alone on a separate line. If three are necessary, the street direction should stand on the first line, the name of the city and state on the second, and the date on the third. Grouping of the heading into lines

Right: Fayette, Ohio, May 21, 1903.

Wrong: 21 North Street,
Lima, Ohio, June 1, 1904.

Right: 21 North Street, Lima, Ohio,
June 1, 1904.

Right: 5051 Madison Avenue,
Chicago, Illinois,
August 27, 1901.

Position of the heading.

315. The heading should be written at the beginning of the letter at the right side of the page. (See the letters on page 135.)

Separation or repetition of members

316. Do not write a part of the heading (see Rule 304) at the beginning of the letter and a part at the close; and do not repeat the heading or a part of it at the close when it has been written at the beginning.

Bad:

Asheville, N. C., May 1, 1907.

Dear John,

* * *

Yours sincerely,
Robert Graves,
20 Charlotte St.

Bad:

Asheville, N. C., May 1, 1907.

Dear John,

* * *

Yours sincerely,
Robert Graves.

20 Charlotte St.,
Asheville, N. C.

Right:

20 Charlotte Street,
Asheville, North Carolina,
May 1, 1907.

Dear John,

* * *

Yours sincerely,
Robert Graves.

The Salutation

317. The following are proper salutations for business letters: Business letters

My dear Sir:	My dear Madam:
Gentlemen:	Ladies:

NOTE. — *Dear Sir* and *Dear Madam* may be used where familiarity of address is proper; they are less ceremonious than *My dear Sir* and *My dear Madam*. In letters purporting to come from more than one person (*e.g.*, a letter signed "D. C. Heath and Company") the *my* is, of course, necessarily omitted in any case.

318. Never use the abbreviation *Messrs.* as a salutation. (See *Messrs.* in the glossary.) Misuse of *Messrs.*

Bad:

D. C. Heath & Co.,
Boston.
Messrs. —

Right:

Messrs. D. C. Heath and Company,
Boston, Massachusetts.
Gentlemen:

319. The following are proper salutations for letters of friendship: Letters of friendship

My dear Sir:	My dear Madam:
My dear Mr. Smith,	My dear Miss Jones,
My dear John,	My dear Susan,

NOTE. — The foregoing salutations with *My* omitted may be used where familiarity of address is proper; salutations without *My* are less ceremonious than those with *My*.

Vulgar salutations

320. The salutations "Dear Friend," "My dear Friend," and "Friend John" are not in reputable use avoid them.

A name for a salutation

321. Never use a name alone as a salutation.

Bad:

Melmore, O., Sept. 3, '07.

Mr. Percy Clapp:—

Please inform me . . .

Right:

Melmore, Ohio, September 3, 1907.

My dear Mr. Clapp,

Will you please inform me . . .

Abbreviations not to be used

322. In the salutation never use any abbreviation, except *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, and *Dr.* (See Rule 269.)

Bad: My dear Prof. Walker.

Right: My dear Professor Walker.

Bad: Dear Capt. Ayer.

Right: Dear Captain Ayer.

Punctuation

323. The salutation should be followed by a colon if the letter is formal; by a comma if the letter is more or less informal. See the two letters on page 135.

Position of the salutation

324. The salutation should be written flush with the left-hand margin. The body of the letter should begin on the line below, near the middle of the line. See the examples on page 135.

The Complimentary Close

Business letters

325. The following are proper complimentary closes for business letters:

Yours truly,
Yours very truly,
Yours respectfully,

Letters of friendship

326. The following are proper complimentary closes for letters of friendship:

Yours very truly,
Yours sincerely,

327. Do not use any abbreviation, such as "yrs" or "resp'y" in the complimentary close; nor write "respectively" for *respectfully;* nor write "and oblige" in the place of the complimentary close. Vulgar closes

328. The complimentary close should be written on a separate line, should stand near the middle of the line, should begin with a capital, and should be followed by a comma. See the examples on page 135. Position and punctuation

329. All expressions introducing the complimentary close, such as "I am," "believe me," "good-bye," should occupy their regular positions in the body of the letter. Position of preceding words

Right:

Accept my congratulations upon your new appointment; and believe me

Yours sincerely,
Henry Cobb.

The Inside Address

330. The inside address — a statement of the name and address of the person written to — is an essential part of a complete letter, though it may be omitted from informal letters. Essential to a complete letter

331. The street direction may be omitted from the inside address. Omission of street direction permissible

Right:

The Tiffany Company,
New York City.
Gentlemen:

332. Do not write a name alone above the salutation. Name without address

Wrong:

Mr. Harvey Myers.
My dear Sir:

Right:

Mr. Harvey Myers,
Seattle, Washington.
My dear Sir:

Abbreviations not to be used

333. In the inside address do not omit *Mr.* or whatever other title is proper; and use no abbreviations except *Mr.*, *Esq.*, *Messrs.*, *Mrs.*, *Dr.*, and suffixed initial titles, like *Ph.D.* (See Rule 269.)

Lacking in courtesy and propriety:

West and Burchell,
Chicago.

Gentlemen:

Right:

Messrs. West and Burchell,
Chicago, Illinois.

Gentlemen:

Lacking in courtesy and propriety:

Century Pub. Co.,
N. Y. City.

Gentlemen:

Right:

The Century Publishing Company,
New York City.

Gentlemen:

Permissible exceptions

NOTE 1. — By way of exception, the long names *United States of America* and *District of Columbia* may be abbreviated respectively to *U. S. A.* and *D.C.* It is permissible in business letters to abbreviate the names of States also; but the better practice is to spell out those names. Abbreviation of the short names *Maine*, *Ohio*, and *Iowa* is objectionable in any letter.

Use of the title *Esq.*

NOTE 2. — The title *Esq.* is a proper substitute for *Mr.* When *Esq.* follows a name, no title should precede the name.

Wrong: Mr. Ralph Williams Esq.
Right: Ralph Williams, Esq.

Position: Commercial letters

334. In commercial letters the inside address should stand above the salutation; in letters of friendship, and in business letters not dealing with mercantile transactions, it should stand, not above the salutation, but at the bottom of the letter at the left side of the page. See the letters on page 135.

Other letters

Literary Style

335. The following faults, characteristic of ill-educated writers and of writers without good taste, are to be especially avoided in letters: Certain vulgarisms:

(*a*) The omission of pronouns, articles, and prepositions. Ellipsis

Bad: Received your letter of the 6th ult. While very doubtful of the result, will try to carry out your instructions.

Right: I have received your letter of August 6. [See Rule 336, below.] Though I am very doubtful about the result, I will try to carry out your instructions.

Bad: We enclose check for three dollars.

Right: We enclose a check for three dollars.

Bad: Direct letter care Thomas Cook.

Right: Direct the letter in care of Thomas Cook.

Bad: Mr. H. P. Thurston, editor Jenksville *Patriot.*

Right: Mr. H. P. Thurston, editor of the Jenksville *Patriot.*

NOTE. — The omission of *I* is proper in diaries and in letters written in the style of a diary, — *i.e.*, intended to present mere hasty memoranda jotted down without any attempt at completeness of form. Thus, Tennyson writes to his wife: "Slept at Spedding's where I found they expected me. Started this morning 11 a.m. Hay fever atrocious with irritation of railway, nearly drove me crazed, but could not complain, the other only occupant having a curiously split shoe for his better ease . . ." In such letters, clipped expressions harmonize with the context. In a letter, however, that is intended to be complete and regular in form, the omission of *I* and of other grammatically essential words is incongruous and in bad taste. (See Rule 337, below.)

(*b*) Writing "yours," "your favor," or "your esteemed favor" for *your letter.* (See Rule 17, note.) "Yours," "your favor"

(*c*) The use of the formula "yours of the 17th received," or "yours of the 17th at hand." Write a grammatically complete expression, such as "I have your letter of June 17." "Yours received"

"In reply would say"

(*d*) The use of the formula "in reply would say" or "will say." Write a grammatically complete expression, such as "In reply allow me to say."

"I would, will, or can say"

(*e*) The use of the formula "I would say," "I will say," or "I can say." Write "Allow me to say" or "I desire to say," or else omit any such introduction.

"Same"

(*f*) The use of the expression "same" or "the same." Use *it* or *they*. (See *Same* in the Glossary.)

Vulgar: Yours of the 3rd at hand, and in reply would say we are at present out of lamps desired but will send same as soon as possible.

Right: In reply to your letter of March 3, we beg leave to state that we have not at present the lamps you desire. We will send them as soon as possible.

"Please"

(*g*) The use of the expression "please" alone. Rather write "Will you please."

"Please find enclosed"

(*h*) The use of the formula "Please find enclosed." Write "I enclose."

"($10) ten dollars"

(*i*) The use of the formula "($10) ten dollars" or ten ($10) dollars." (See Rule 274.)

Name of city abbreviated

(*j*) The abbreviation of the name of a city; *e.g.*, of *Cincinnati* to "Cin.," of *Philadelphia* to "Phil.," or of *New York City* to "N. Y. City."

Participial close

"and oblige"

(*k*) Monotonously closing all letters with a sentence introduced by a participle, as "Hoping to hear soon . . ." "Thanking you again . . ."; or monotonously closing all letters of request with "and oblige."

The use of *I*

336. The rule often taught, that it is improper to begin the body of a letter with *I*, is nonsense; beginning with *I* is always permissible and often desirable.

Not to be avoided by mere ellipsis

337. The monotonously frequent use of *I* in letters is a common fault which it is well to guard against. But one should not, in order to avoid this fault, commit the worse fault of simply omitting *I;* as "Have not heard from you for a long time. Should think you ought to have

written before this." The noticeably frequent use of *I* is nothing worse than an awkwardness; the ellipsis of *I* is a vulgarism. (See Rule 335 *a*, above.) As between the two, the awkwardness is preferable. To avoid the repetition of *I*, practice variety of sentence structure, not ellipsis.

A Correctly Written Business Letter

Specimen letters

17 Lumber Exchange,
Minneapolis, Minnesota,
January 2, 1907.

Mr. Henry Coleman,
Chicago, Illinois.

My dear Sir:

I have your letter of December 29. Allow me to say in reply that the house is still for sale.

Yours truly,
Frank Shaw.

A Correctly Written Letter of Friendship

Murray Hill Hotel,
New York City,
September 20, 1907.

My dear Mr. Crawford,

The composition you inquire about is L. Pabst's *Aria con Variazioni* in D flat major. I forget who publishes it; but you can get it by sending to Schirmer's New York house.

Yours sincerely,
Edith Morris.

Mr. George Crawford,
1301 Beacon Street,
Boston, Massachusetts.

Formal Notes in the Third Person

338. Formal notes written in the third person should have no heading, no salutation, no complimentary close, no inside address, and no signature. They should be written consistently and solely in the third person; the writer should not refer to himself as *I* or to the addressee

Solely in third person

No abbreviations

Numbers spelled out

as *you*. Except *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, *Messrs.*, and *Dr.*, no abbreviations whatever should be used; and numbers occurring in dates should — unlike those in ordinary letters — be spelled out. For information about other matters, the following examples will suffice:

Right:

Mrs. Burton requests the pleasure of Miss Irwin's company at dinner on Friday, May the second, at seven o'clock.
935 Webster Street,
April the twenty-third.

Right:

Miss Irwin accepts with pleasure Mrs. Burton's invitation to dinner on May the second.
1720 Princeton Avenue,
April the twenty-fourth.

Bad:

500 Anderson Street,
Hennesy, Mich.,
Jan. 10, '07.

Mr. Matthews regrets that he will not be able to accept your invitation for Jan. 15. Severe illness will make it impossible for me to come.

Yours truly,
Hiram Matthews.

Right:

Mr. Matthews regrets that, on account of illness, he is unable to accept Mr. and Mrs. Eliot's invitation for January the fifteenth.
500 Anderson Street,
January the tenth.

Misuse of future tense

NOTE. — The future tense in the first sentence of the foregoing *Bad* letter illustrates a common error in letters of regret or acceptance.

Wrong: Mr. Smith will be pleased to accept . . . [The being pleased to accept is present, not future.]

Right: Mr. Smith accepts; [or] Mr. Smith is pleased to accept.

Wrong: . . regrets that he will be unable to accept . . . [The inability to accept is present, not future.]

Right: . . . regrets that he is unable to accept . . .

Sundry Mechanical Directions

339. The ink used in letter writing should be of no other color than black. Ink

340. Letter-paper consisting of sheets so folded that each sheet is like a little book of four pages, is suitable for all letters, — commercial, professional, or social; and for the letters of private individuals, as distinguished from those of public officials and those of business firms, it is, on the whole, preferable to writing-paper in flat sheets. The use of the latter kind is best confined to business or professional correspondence. Writing-paper that is ruled, or limp and flimsy in texture, or conspicuous because of unusual color, should be used for no letters whatever — except in case of emergency. Writing-paper: Four-page sheets Flat sheets

341. The writing should not be crowded close to the top of any page, but should begin an inch or two below. For the sake of neat and attractive appearance, it is best to keep a blank margin at least half an inch wide at the left side of every page. Rules 165–177 and 183–187 should be observed in letters as well as in other manuscripts. Margin at top Margin at left Legibility

342. When flat sheets of paper are used, it is usually best that only one side of each sheet be written on. If both sides are written on, the reader is slightly inconvenienced in holding and turning the sheets as he reads. Order of pages: Flat sheets

343. When four-page sheets are used, all four pages may be written on. The letter should be so written that a person reading the first page has at his left the Four-page sheets

fold, and at his right the coinciding edges opposite the fold. If the substance of the letter occupies less than two pages of the sheet, the first and third pages may be written on and the second be left blank. If the substance of the letter occupies more than two pages, it is best, both on the ground of good usage and on that of the reader's convenience, that the pages be written on in their natural order, — *viz.*, 1, 2, 3, 4; not in the order 1, 3, 2, 4 or 1, 4, 2, 3. On the same grounds, it is best that the lines of writing on all the pages be at right angles to the fold, not parallel with the fold.

Folding and enclosing:

Four-page sheets

344. A letter written on a four-page sheet should be enclosed in an envelope of the same material and of such shape and size that the letter will fit into it when folded with one horizontal crease through the center. The letter should be so folded that the upper and the lower halves of page 1 face each other; or, in other words, so that the horizontal crease will appear as a groove on pages 1 and 3, and as a ridge on pages 2 and 4. The letter should be so placed in the envelope that the horizontal crease is at the bottom of the envelope, and the two coinciding halves of the vertical crease originally dividing the sheet are at the left hand of a person looking at the sealed side of the envelope.

Flat sheets of note size:

Envelope of note size

345. A letter written on flat sheets of paper of note size (approximately 6×8 inches) may be enclosed —

(*a*) In an envelope into which it will fit when folded with one crease running through the center. In this case, the two halves of page 1 should be made to face each other; or, in other words, the crease should appear, to a person reading page 1, as a groove, not as a ridge. Place the letter in the envelope with the crease at the bottom, and with the half containing the heading next to the face, not the sealed side, of the envelope.

(*b*) In an envelope of commercial size (approximately $3\frac{1}{2} \times 6\frac{1}{2}$ inches). In this case, fold the letter into three sections, — a central section and two flaps. Correct folding may be accomplished by the following process: As the letter lies right side up on the table, raise the lower part and fold it upward over the middle part, making a horizontal crease about one third of the distance from the bottom to the top; next, raise the upper part and fold it downward, making a horizontal crease about one fourth of the distance from the top to the bottom. The creases should appear, to a person reading page 1, as grooves, not ridges. The letter so folded should be placed in the envelope with the two flaps next to the sealed side, not next to the face, of the envelope; with the smaller flap on top of the larger one; and with the outward edge of the smaller flap pointing downward. The foregoing directions apply to letters in which the lines of writing run parallel to the short sides of the paper. Letters in which the lines run parallel to the long sides should be folded into the same shape; but the part containing the salutation should form the smaller flap. Such a letter should be placed in the envelope with the flaps next to the sealed side, with the smaller flap on top of the larger one, and with the outward edge of the smaller flap pointing upward.

Commercial envelope:

Writing parallel with short sides

Writing parallel with long sides

346. A letter written on flat sheets of paper of full commercial size (approximately 8×11 inches) may be enclosed —

Flat sheets of full commercial size:

(*a*) In an envelope of commercial size (approximately $3\frac{1}{2} \times 6\frac{1}{2}$ inches). In this case, correct folding may be accomplished by the following process: As the letter lies face up on the table, raise the lower part and fold it upward over the upper part with a horizontal crease running slightly below the center. Keeping the upper part lying next the table, and keeping the horizontal crease

Commercial envelope

toward you, raise the right-hand part and fold it toward the left, making a vertical crease about one third of the distance from right to left. Finally, raise the left-hand part and fold it toward the right, making a vertical crease about one fourth of the distance from left to right. When page 1 is read, the horizontal crease and the two vertical creases that divide the upper half of the page should appear as grooves, and the two vertical creases that divide the lower half should appear as ridges. The letter, as folded, consists of a central section and two flaps. Place it in the envelope with the two flaps next to the sealed side, not next to the face, of the envelope; with the smaller flap on top of the larger one; and with the outward edge of the smaller flap pointing upward.

Official envelope

(*b*) In an envelope of official size (approximately 10×4 inches). In this case, it should be folded and enclosed according to the method shown in Rule 345 *b*.

Square envelope

(*c*) In an approximately square envelope, into which it will fit when folded with one horizontal and one vertical crease, both running through the center. In this case, make the horizontal fold first, laying the upper and the lower halves of page 1 face to face — or, in other words, making a crease that will appear as a groove in page 1; then fold with a vertical crease that will appear as a groove in the upper half of page 1, and as a ridge in the lower half. Place the letter in the envelope with the vertical crease at the bottom and the two coinciding halves of the horizontal crease at the right hand, with respect to a person looking at the sealed side of the envelope.

The fundamental principle underlying Rules 344–346

347. The foregoing rules in regard to the manner of folding letters and inserting them in envelopes are merely detailed applications of the simple rule of courtesy: Fold and enclose the letter in such a way that the receiver

will be able, with the least possible effort, to get it right side up in his hand, ready to read. A few experiments will show that if any of the directions in Rules 344–346, above, are disregarded in the folding and enclosing of a letter, the addressee, on taking the letter from the envelope and unfolding it in the natural way, will find it with the first page turned from him or with the writing upside down.

The Envelope

348. In writing the address on an envelope, apply Rules 307, 308, 309, 333, and 335 *a*.

The superscription:

Bad:

Thos. Howe,
c/o Capt. Wm. Fisk,
Wabasha,
Minn.

Addressee's title

Right:

Mr. Thomas Howe
In care of Captain William Fisk
Wabasha
Minnesota

Abbreviations not to be used

Bad:

Rev. Chas. Wentworth,
#463 9th st.,
Bridgeport,
Ct.

The sign # not to be used

Right:

The Reverend Charles Wentworth,
463 Ninth Street,
Bridgeport,
Connecticut.

Street numbers

Bad:

Editor Centerville Ledger,
#65 North Liberty,
Centerville,
O.

Street not to be omitted

Ellipsis not to be used

Right:

For the Editor of the Centerville *Ledger*
65 North Liberty Street
Centerville
Ohio

Punctuation

349. It is permissible to write the address on an envelope without any marks of punctuation at the ends of lines. If such punctuation is employed, a period should be placed at the end of the last line and a comma at the end of each preceding line.

Right:

Professor Henry D. Lennington
1436 Putnam Avenue
Woonsocket
Rhode Island

Right:

Colonel Charles Kent,
The Southwick Hotel,
Kansas City,
Missouri.

The postage stamp

350. The postage stamp should be attached in the upper right-hand corner. It should be right side up, and its edges should be parallel to the edges of the envelope. A postage stamp upside down or affixed in a haphazard fashion raises against the sender of the letter a suspicion of slovenliness.

V. A GLOSSARY

OF MISCELLANEOUS FAULTY EXPRESSIONS

A.D. Means *in the year of the Lord.* Should not, therefore, be appended to the name of a *century.* Should not be appended to a date self-evidently modern. When used, should precede the date and should not be preceded by a preposition.

Wrong: The sixth century A.D.
Right: The sixth century after Christ.
Right: Arminius died A.D. 21.

About. See **At about.**

Accept. See **Except.**

Affect. Means *to influence;* as "Trade would be seriously affected by a war." Is never used as a noun—always as a verb. Often confused with *effect. Effect* (verb) means *to bring to pass;* as "He effected a reconciliation." *Effect* (noun) means *result;* as "The drug had a fatal effect." (See Exercise LXX.)

After. Inaccurate: After having written.
Right: After writing.

Aggravate. Means *to make worse;* as "The shock aggravated his misery." Should not be used for *vex* or *annoy.*

All the. The use of "all the farther," "all the higher," "all the faster," or a similar expression is a crudity.

Crude: That was all the farther we went that day.
Right: That was all the distance we went that day; [or] That was as far as we went that day.

Alternative. Means *choice between two things*, or *one of two things between which choice is possible;* as "The alternative is difficult," "One alternative was to jump from the window; the other was to be burned to death." Should not be applied to one of more than two things.

Wrong: There is still a third alternative.
Right: Still a third course may be adopted.

And. Often incorrectly used instead of *to.*

Wrong: He said he was going up and clean out the attic.
Right: He said he was going up to clean out the attic.

And etc. Never put *and* before *etc.*

Wrong: Pillows, flags, posters, and etc.
Right: Pillows, flags, posters, etc.

Anent. The use of this synonym of *about* or *concerning* suggests affectation.

Any place, every place, no place, some place. Vulgarisms for *anywhere, everywhere, nowhere, somewhere.* (See Rule 4.)

Appreciate. Means *to estimate justly* or *to value highly;* as "I appreciate the service." Should not be modified by *greatly* or *very much.*

As (1). The frequent use of *as* as a causal conjunction is a mark of ill-educated writers. Where *as* occurs in this sense there should usually be no conjunction.

Bad: Excuse my short letter as I am buried in work just now.
Right: Excuse my short letter; I am buried in work just now.

Bad: There were no settlers left as they had all been massacred.
Right: There were no settlers left; they had all been massacred.

As (2). In negative statements and in questions implying a negative answer, good usage requires the correlatives *so . . . as* rather than the correlatives *as . . . as.*

Poor: The modern nations are not as artistic as the ancient nations were.
Right: The modern nations are not so artistic as the ancient nations were.

At about. Prefer *about.*

Inferior: He came at about three o'clock.
Right: He came about three o'clock.

Aught. Means *anything.* The name of the symbol 0 is *naught,* not *aught.*

Avail. *Of no avail* is properly used only with some form of *be;* elsewhere use *to no avail.*

Wrong: He tried, but of no avail.
Right: He tried, but to no avail.
Right: His attempt was of no avail.

Awful. Means *inspiring with awe;* as "The awful presence of the king." Should not be used loosely. Say not "an awful mistake," but "a serious or disastrous mistake"; not "an awful blunder," but "a ludicrous blunder"; not "awful manners," but "uncivil or ill-bred manners"; not "awful treatment," but "discourteous or cruel treatment." Choose an adjective that expresses your meaning definitely.

Badly. Should not be used for *a great deal* or *very much.*

Wrong : I want badly to see you.
Right : I want very much to see you.

Balance. Bad English when used in the sense of *remainder.* (Cf. **Bank on, Take stock in, Endorse.**)

Bad : One was an Italian; the balance were Greeks.
Right : One was an Italian; the rest were Greeks.

Bank on, take stock in. Objectionable slang in the sense of *rely on, trust in, receive as trustworthy, confidently expect.* (Cf. **Balance** and **Endorse.**)

Barn. Means *a farm building used for storing grain or hay.* Should not be used for *stable.*

Beg. When used in asking permission to do a thing, *beg* should govern a noun, — *permission, leave,* or some synonym of these words.

Incorrect : I beg to state. — I beg to differ. — I beg to be absent.
Right : I beg leave to state. — I beg leave to differ. — I beg permission to be absent.

Borrow. Not to be confused with *lend.*

Vulgar : He refused to borrow me his knife.
Right : He refused to lend me his knife.
Right : I wanted to borrow his knife from him.

Bring forth. Means *give birth to.* Should not usually be used for *bring forward, offer,* etc.

Bunch. A vulgarism for *group* or *party.*

But that, or **but what.** Incorrect after *doubt.*

Wrong : I had no doubt but what he would bite.
Right : I had no doubt that he would bite.

Calculate. A vulgarism for *think, suppose, expect,* or *intend.*

Can. Denotes power or ability. Should not be used to denote permission.

Wrong : Can students hand in their theses in manuscript?
Right : May students [or are students allowed to, or permitted to] hand in their theses in manuscript?

Can't seem. See **Seem.**

Cause. Complete such an expression as *the cause was* with a predicate noun or a noun clause. (See Rule 117 and Exercise XLII.)

Wrong: The cause of his failure was on account of his imprudence.
Right: The cause of his failure was his imprudence; [or] . . . was that he was imprudent.

Characteristic. Means *a distinguishing quality;* as "His chief characteristic is absent-mindedness." Should not be used without intelligent regard to its meaning.

Bad: One characteristic of my daily life is climbing College Hill.
Right: One incident of my daily life is climbing College Hill.

Charge. Should be combined, when it means *accuse*, not with *of*, but with *with*.

Wrong: They charged him of many crimes.
Right: They charged him with many crimes.

Claim. Means *to demand as due;* as "I claim the reward." Inelegant for *assert* or *maintain*.

Climax. Means *series of things each of which is in some respect stronger than the preceding;* as "Then began a climax of misfortunes." Properly applied to the whole series, not to the culminating member.

Wrong: Our joy reached its climax when Father came.
Right: Our joy reached its culmination [or height, or acme] when Father came.

Coincidence. Means *the occurrence of two events at the same time or in remarkable connection with each other;* as "My forgetting my ticket and Bob's appearance just then with a ticket he didn't need, made a lucky coincidence." Should not be used to designate a single event.

Company. A vulgarism for *companion*, *guest*, *escort*, or the plurals of these words.

Complected. A vulgarism. (See Rule 5.)

Vulgar: A light-complected girl.
Right: A light-complexioned girl.

Conclude. Incorrect in the sense of *arrive at a determination*. Correct in the sense of *arrive at an opinion or belief*.

Right: I concluded that the current was weak.
Wrong: I concluded to strengthen the current.
Right: I finally decided to strengthen the current.

Contemplate. Should not be combined with a preposition.

Wrong: He contemplated on [or over] a trip to Alaska.
Right: He contemplated a trip to Alaska.

Contemptible. Means *worthy of being despised;* as "He is a contemptible sneak." Not to be confused with *contemptuous*, which means *showing scorn;* as "He made a contemptuous answer."

Contemptuous. See **Contemptible.**

Continual. Not synonymous with *continuous*, according to modern usage. *Continual* means *occurring in close succession, frequently repeated;* as "Continual hindrances discouraged us," "He coughs continually." *Continuous* means *without cessation, continuing uninterrupted;* as "Continuous opposition discouraged us," "He slept continuously for ten hours."

Continuous. See **Continual.**

Could of. See **Of.**

Couldn't seem. See **Seem.**

Crowd. Not to be used for *party* or *company.*

Cunning. Means *artful, ingenious*, or *giving evidence of art or ingenuity;* as "a cunning intriguer," "cunning workmanship." Should not be used for *pretty* or *amusing.*

Cute. Slang. Use *pretty, vivacious, lively, amusing, dainty, piquant, engaging*, or some other word in reputable use and of definite meaning.

Data, phenomena, strata. Plural, not singular forms. The singular forms are *datum* (rarely used), *phenomenon*, and *stratum.*

Date. Inelegant for *engagement* or *appointment.*

Deal (1). Should be combined with *with*, not with *on* or *of*, when the intended meaning is *discuss.*

Wrong: He deals on three subjects.
Wrong: He deals of three subjects.
Right: He deals with three subjects.

Deal (2). A vulgarism for *transaction, agreement*, or *arrangement.*

Demand. Means *to claim or call for peremptorily.* The object of this verb should be the thing claimed, never the person from whom the thing is claimed.

Wrong: Japan demanded Russia to leave Manchuria.
Right: Japan demanded that Russia leave Manchuria. [The object of "demanded" is the substantive clause "that . . . Manchuria."]

Depot. Inelegant as applied to a building for the accommodation of passengers. Say "station."

Different. Should not be completed by a *than* clause, but always by a *from* phrase.

Wrong: The method is different than the one that formerly prevailed.
Right: The method is different from the one that formerly prevailed.

Diner, sleeper, smoker. Not in good use as meaning *dining car*, *sleeping car*, and *smoking car*.

Disinterested. Means *without self-interest*, *unselfish*; as "the judge's disinterested performance of his duty." Not to be confounded with *uninterested*.

Do away with. Hackneyed and inelegant. Say "abolish," "discontinue," or "eliminate."

Done away with. See **Do away with.**

Don't. A contraction of *do not*. Therefore ungrammatical when used with a subject in the third person singular. (See Rule 29.)

Wrong: He don't know.
Right: He doesn't know.
Right: I don't know, we don't know, you don't know, and they don't know.

Dove. Should not be used as the past tense of *dive*. Say "dived."

Down. A vulgarism when used as a verb. Say "subdue," "defeat," "obtain the advantage over," "get the best of." (See Rule 4.)

Due to. Should not be used unless the *due* modifies some noun.

Wrong: The forces were divided, due to a misunderstanding.
Right: The forces were divided through [or because of] a misunderstanding.

Each other. Often misused for *one another*. Do not say "each other" unless each member of a group is represented as in a certain relation to every other member.

Absurd: Improvements in apparatus are rapidly following each other.
Right: Improvements in apparatus are rapidly following one another.
Right: The two brothers hated each other.
Right: They all agreed to stand by each other. [Each member of the party agreed to stand by every other member.]

Eating house, eating place. Vulgarisms for *restaurant*, *dining room*.

Effect. See **Affect.**

Either, neither. Correctly used to designate one of two persons or things, not one of three or more.

Wrong: I asked Leahy, Mahoney, and McGinty, but neither of them was willing.
Right: I asked Leahy, Mahoney, and McGinty, but none of them was willing; [or] . . . no one of them was willing.

Elegant. Means *excelling in the power to discriminate properly and select properly*, or *giving evidence of such excellence;* as "an elegant gentleman," "elegant ornamentation." Should not be used loosely. Say not "an elegant view," but a "beautiful view"; not "an elegant game of football," but "an excellent or a masterly game"; not "an elegant march," but "a spirited or rousing march"; not "an elegant pie," but "a delicious pie." Choose an adjective that expresses your meaning definitely.

Element. Means a *component part;* as "The elements of training are exercise, diet, and regularity." Should not be used without intelligent regard to its meaning.

Bad: Next, the logs are "driven" down stream. Great danger besets the lumbermen in this element.
Right: Next, the logs are "driven" down stream. Great danger besets the lumbermen in this process.

Else. Inelegant: Somebody's else book.
Right: Somebody else's book.

Endorse or indorse. Bad English when used in the sense of *approve.* (Cf. the other commercial expressions "bank on," "take stock in," "balance," discussed in this Glossary.)

Bad: This statement is endorsed by eminent scientists.
Right: This statement is corroborated by eminent scientists.

Enough. A result complement limiting *enough* should have the form of an infinitive, not of a clause introduced by *that* or *so that.*

Wrong: It was near enough that I could touch it.
Right: It was near enough for me to touch it.

Wrong: There is humor enough so that the story isn't dull.
Right: There is humor enough to keep the story from being dull.

Enthuse. A vulgarism. The word is unknown to good usage. (See Rule 5.)

Vulgar: He doesn't enthuse me.
Right: He doesn't rouse any enthusiasm in me.
Vulgar: She never enthuses.
Right: She never becomes enthusiastic.

Etc. The use of *etc.* is incongruous in a context intended to be artistic. Use a definite term in place of *etc.* or else simply omit *etc.*

Wrong: She was more beautiful, witty, virtuous, etc., than any other lady.
Right: She was more beautiful, witty, virtuous, and loyal than any other lady.
Right: She was more beautiful, witty, and virtuous than any other lady.

In any context, avoid the vague use of *etc.;* use it only to dispense with useless repetition or to represent terms that are entirely obvious.

Every place. See **Any place.**

Every so often. A puerility for *at regular periods or intervals.*

Except (verb) means *to exclude;* as "He alone was excepted from the amnesty." *Except* (preposition) means *with the exception (i.e., exclusion) of;* as "All's lost except honor." *Except* is not to be confused with *accept*, which means *to receive.* (See Exercise LXIX.)

Expect. Should not be used for *suppose.*

Factor. Means *a force or agent coöperating with other forces or agents to produce a certain result;* as "The factors of success are industry and perseverance." Should not be used without intelligent regard to its meaning.

Bad: Being ducked in the lake is an inevitable factor in the freshman's experience.
Right: Being ducked in the lake is an inevitable part of the freshman's experience.

Falls, ways, woods. Plurals not singulars.

Wrong: Go a little ways down stream till you come to a falls. Beside it is a woods.
Right: Go a little way down stream till you come to a fall. Beside it is a wood.

Feature. May be used figuratively to mean *noticeable quality or characteristic;* as "The chief feature of the scenery is its ruggedness," "A feature of his style is its vivacity." Crude and incorrect when used to designate an event.

Bad: The principal feature of the day was a boat race.
Right: The principal occurrence of the day was a boat race.

Fine. A word of rather indefinite meaning. Avoid the habitual loose use of it; prefer a more definite word. Say not "a fine explanation," but "a lucid, or clear explanation"; not "fine tools for general use," but "tools well suited or adapted to general use"; not "a fine spring of water," but "a refreshing or delicious spring"; not "a fine toast-master," but "a witty or felicitous toast-master." Choose a word of definite meaning.

First-rate. May be used as an adjective but never as an adverb.

Right: It is a first-rate building.
Wrong: He plays tennis first-rate.
Right: He plays tennis very well; [or] He plays a first-rate game of tennis.

Firstly. A word unknown to good usage.

Wrong: Firstly . . . Secondly . . . Thirdly . . .
Right: First . . . Secondly . . . Thirdly . . .

Fix (1). Slang for *plight, situation,* or *condition.*

Fix (2). The verb *fix* means *attach*. Should not be used for *repair*, *arrange*, or *prepare*. The expression "fix up" used in one of these senses is particularly objectionable.

Former, latter. Properly used to designate one of two persons or things, not one of three or more. (Cf. **Either, neither.**) For designating one of three or more, say "first," "first-named," "first-mentioned," or "last," "last-named," "last-mentioned."

Frighten, scare. Vulgarisms when used intransitively.

Wrong: Does the horse frighten easily?
Right: Is the horse frightened easily?

Gentleman, lady. Terms properly used to designate persons of refined speech and manners, as distinguished from ill-bred or uncultivated people; the use of them to designate mere sex is a vulgarism.

Vulgar: Saleslady, business gentleman, lady stenographer. — There are lady cab-drivers in Paris. — There are more ladies than gentlemen who play the piano. — Cornell admits ladies, but Williams admits only gentlemen. — Ladies' cloak room.

Right: Saleswoman, business man, woman stenographer. — There are woman cab-drivers in Paris. — There are more women than men who play the piano. — Cornell admits women, but Williams admits only men. — Women's cloak room.

The use of *man* and *woman* need never be shunned; even where *lady* or *gentleman* may be used correctly, *man* or *woman* is equally polite, and is often preferable.

Right: Is your wife a Massachusetts woman? — You are the only woman I know who drives a motor. — Are you the man I met last spring in Denver?

Gentleman friend, lady friend. These terms, not in themselves objectionable, have, through the use that has been made of them, become ambiguous and vulgar. Prefer *man friend* (plural: *man friends*) or *gentleman of one's acquaintance*, *woman friend* (plural: *woman friends*) or *lady of one's acquaintance*.[1]

Get. A provincialism when used with an infinitive, as in the following sentence:

Wrong: I didn't get to go to the lecture.
Right: I wasn't able to go to the lecture; [or] I didn't get a chance to go to the lecture.

Get up. An inelegant expression loosely used for *organize*, *institute*, *compose*, *prepare*, *arrange*, *print*, *bind*, *dress*, *decorate*, or *ornament*. Choose the verb that clearly expresses what you mean.

Going on.

Tautological and vulgar: How old is he? Sixteen, going on seventeen.
Right: How old is he? Sixteen.

[1] See Quackenbos's *Practical Rhetoric*, Chapter XXI.

Got. *Get* means *to secure; got* should therefore not be used unless the intended meaning is *secured*, nor *has got* unless the intended meaning is *has secured.*

Wrong: Have you got a knife with you?
Right: Have you a knife with you?

Got up, gotten up. See **Get up.**

Gotten. Obsolescent. Say "got."

Undesirable: He has gotten his reward at last.
Right: He has got his reward at last.

Grand. Means *on a large scale, imposing;* as "a grand mountain range." Should not be used loosely. Say not "a grand day," but "a beautiful or brilliant day"; not "grand ice-boating," but "excellent or exhilarating ice-boating"; not "grand white snow," but "beautiful white snow"; not "a grand time," but "an entertaining or delightful time." Choose an adjective that expresses your meaning definitely.

Grip. Should not be used to mean *portmanteau* or *bag*, or to mean *cable-car.*

Grip-sack. A provincialism for *traveling bag* or *portmanteau.*

Guess. Should not be used to express supposition, expectation, or intention. Say "think," "suppose," "expect," "mean," or "intend."

Had better, had best, had rather. Entirely grammatical and fully approved by good usage. *Would better, would best,* and *would rather* are not preferable. *Had better* is preferable to *would better; had best* and *would best, had rather* and *would rather* are equally good.

Correct but undesirable: You would better not stay long.
Right: You had better not stay long.
Right: They had best attempt no violence.
Right: I had rather go than stay.

Had have or had of. Often incorrectly used for *had.*

Bad: If he had have [or had of] tried, he would have succeeded.
Right: If he had tried, he would have succeeded.

Have (1). A vulgarism when used as in the following *Wrong* sentences:

Wrong: Ira Fote had a sheep die last week.
Right: One of Ira Fote's sheep died last week.
Wrong: When they saw the dead mother, each man had a tender feeling spring up in his heart.
Right: When they saw the dead mother, each felt a tender feeling spring up in his heart.

Have (2). A juvenile word for *study.*

Juvenile: Did you have German last year?
Right: Did you study German last year?

Have got. See **Got.**

Heap, heaps. Vulgarisms for *very much, a great deal, a great many.*

Hear to it. A vulgarism. Say "consent to it," or "allow it."

Help (1). A vulgarism for *a servant, servants,* or *employees.*

Help (2). Should not be followed by *but* when used in the sense of *avoid;* should be followed by a gerund.

Wrong: I can't help but regret.
Right: I can't help regretting.

Hired girl. A vulgarism for *maid* or *servant.*

Home. Should not be used as an adverb meaning *at home;* properly used as an adverb expressing motion.

Wrong: He is home.
Right: He is at home.
Right: He went home.

Honorable. See **Reverend.**

Hopes. Often misused for *hope.* Do not use the plural to designate one hope.

Wrong: I wrote in hopes of acceptance.
Right: I wrote in the hope of acceptance.

Wrong: In the hopes of seeing her, he remained behind.
Right: In the hope, etc.

Hung. Improper when used in reference to an execution. Say "hanged."

Wrong: He was found guilty and hung.
Right: He was found guilty and hanged.
Right: We hung the flag on the balcony.

Hustle. A vulgarism when used intransitively to mean *hasten, hurry,* or *be energetic or industrious.* Correctly used with a direct object.

Wrong: People were hustling about in confusion.
Right: People were hurrying about in confusion.
Right: The police hustled the loiterers from the hall.

I.e. Means *that is;* denotes, therefore, that what follows is equivalent to what precedes. Should not be used when what follows is not equivalent to what precedes, or when *that is* will not fit grammatically into the place of *i.e.*

Right: The act is treated as a capital crime,—*i.e.*, a crime punishable by death. ["A crime punishable by death" is equivalent to "a capital crime"; and *that is* may be grammatically substituted for "*i.e.*"]

Wrong: I like to read the Bible, *i.e.*, some of the stories in the Old Testament. ["Some of the stories in the Old Testament" is not equivalent to "the Bible."]

Wrong: I like some parts of the Bible, *i.e.*, the stories in the Old Testament. [*That is* can not be grammatically substituted for "*i.e.*"]

Right: I like some parts of the Bible, — namely, [or *viz.*,] the stories in the Old Testament.
Right: He had committed lese-majesty, — *i.e.*, had given an affront to the Emperor. ["Had . . . Emperor" is equivalent to "had . . . majesty" and *that is* may properly be substituted for "*i.e.*"]

If. Not to be used in prose as a synonym of *whether.*

Wrong: I don't know if I can.
Right: I don't know whether I can.

Ilk. An archaic adjective meaning *same.* In the expression *of that ilk*, as correctly used, *ilk* is an adjective modifying *estate* understood; "Sir George Urquhart of that ilk" means *Sir George Urquhart of that same (estate), — i.e., Sir George Urquhart of Urquhart.* The use of *ilk* as a noun meaning *kind* is a blunder.

Wrong: I'm not of her ilk, I'm glad to say.
Right: I'm not of her sort, I'm glad to say.

In. Generally incorrect when used to express motion. Say "into."

Wrong: He went in the bank.
Right: He went into the bank.

In back of. *In front of* is correct; "in back of" is a vulgarism. Say "behind."

In our midst. See **Midst.**

Individual. Should not be used indiscriminately for *person.* Properly used to mean *individual person.*

Right: He made a general address to the class, and also gave special advice to the individuals in the class.
Wrong: He is a tall, gaunt individual.
Right: He is a tall, gaunt fellow [or person, or man].

Indorse. See **Endorse.**

Indulge. Means (*a*) *to treat with forbearance;* as "Will you indulge me for a moment?"; or (*b*) *to put no restraint upon oneself;* as "He indulges in [*i.e.*, puts no restraint upon himself in regard to] gambling." *Indulge in* is often misused for *practice* or *engage in.*

Bad: Practice in surveying is indulged in in the autumn.
Right: Practice in surveying is engaged in [or taken] in the autumn.

Inferior. See **Superior.**

Inside. Does not require *of* following. Say simply "inside."

Right: They were trapped inside the walls.

Inside of. A vulgarism for *within*, in time expressions.

Bad: It will disappear inside of a week.
Right: It will disappear within a week.

Kind, sort. Crude and incorrect: I don't like those kind [or those sort] of photographs.
Right: I don't like that kind [or that sort] of photographs.

Kind of, sort of (1). Should never be used to modify verbs or adjectives. Say "somewhat," "somehow," "for some reason," "rather," or "after a fashion."

Bad: People who kind of chill you . . .
Right: People who somehow chill you . . .

Bad: The man who does nothing but study, gets sort of dull.
Right: The man who does nothing but study, gets rather dull.

Bad: I kind of felt my way at first.
Right: I felt my way, after a fashion, at first.

Kind of, sort of (2). Should not be followed by *a* or *an*.

Inelegant: What kind of a house is it?
Right: What kind of house is it?

Inelegant: It is a sort of a castle.
Right: It is a sort of castle.

Lady, lady friend. See **Gentleman** and **Gentleman friend.**

Latter. See **Former.**

Lay. Often confounded with *lie*. Remember that *lay* is the causative of *lie; i.e., to lay* means *to cause to lie*. Remember the principal parts of each verb:

I lie	I lay	I have lain.
I lay	I laid	I have laid.

(See Exercises I, II.)

Leave go of. A puerility. Say "leave hold of" or "let go."

Childish: He left go of the rope.
Right: He left hold of the rope; [or] He let go the rope.

Less. A vulgarism for *fewer*.

Wrong: Less men were hurt this year than last.
Right: Fewer men were hurt this year than last.

Liable. Means (*a*) *easily susceptible;* as "It is liable to injury;" or (*b*) *likely;* as "It is liable to be misunderstood." But NOTE: Liable is not properly used in the sense of *likely* except in designating an injurious or undesirable event which may befall a person or thing.

Wrong: We are liable to have a clear day to-morrow.
Right: We are likely, etc.

Like. A vulgarism when used to introduce a subject with a verb. Say "as" or "as if." *Like* is correct when followed by a substantive without a verb.

Vulgar: He acted like the rest did.
Right: He acted as the rest did.
Right: He acted like the rest.

Vulgar: I felt like I had done something generous.
Right: I felt as if I had done something generous.
Right: I felt like a philanthropist.

(See Exercise XXVI.)

Liked. Should not be compounded with *would* or *should*.

Bad: He would liked to have gone.
Right: He would have liked to go. [See Rule 53.]

Line. The following uses of *line* are characteristic of ill-educated writers and speakers:

(*a*) The loose use of *line* in the sense of *kind* or *business*, or in other senses for which there are precise words.

Bad: What line of work are you now doing?
Right: What kind of work are you now doing?

Bad: I am now engaged in the hardware line.
Right: I am now engaged in the hardware business.

(*b*) The use of *line* shown in the following *Bad* examples;

Bad: I like anything in the card line.
Right: I like any game of cards.

Bad: Was there anything in the refreshment line?
Right: Were there any refreshments?

Bad: He said a few things in the advice line.
Right: He gave me a little advice; [or] He said a few things by way of advice.

Bad: I'm not very good in the walking line.
Right: I'm not very good at walking.

(*c*) The use of "along the line of" or "in the line of" for *in connection with, in regard to, about, on the subject of, in the nature of, by way of, in, of.*

Bad: He was also famous along the line of literature.
Right: He was also famous in literature.

Bad: The dean said some things along the line of athletics.
Right: The dean said some things about athletics.

Bad: We are planning something in the line of a surprise.
Right: We are planning something by way of surprise.

(*d*) The use of "along this or that line" or "in this or that line," for *in or on or in regard to this or that subject, in this or that respect, of this or that sort.*

Bad: Let me tell you something along that line.
Right: Let me tell you something in connection with that subject.

Bad: If he is so weak in physics and chemistry, he needs some tutoring along those lines.
Right: If he is so weak in physics and chemistry, he needs some tutoring in those subjects.

Bad: I need some tacks. Have you anything along that line?
Right: I need some tacks. Have you anything of that sort?

Lines. A provincialism for *reins.*

Loan. Inelegant when used as a verb.

Inelegant: He loaned me a book.
Right: He lent me a book.
Right: The loan was a great assistance.

Locate. A vulgarism for *settle.* Correct when used transitively.

Bad: He located in Ohio.
Right: He settled in Ohio.
Right: He located his factory in Lima.

Lose out, win out. Slang, not proper except in connection with sports.

Lovely. Means *lovable* or *inspiring love;* as "a lovely character." Should not be used loosely. Say not "a lovely time," but "a pleasant or delightful time"; not "a lovely drive," but "an interesting or pleasant drive"; not "a lovely costume," but "a handsome, or dainty, or rich, or striking, or elegant costume." Choose the adjective that expresses your meaning definitely.

Mad. Means *insane.* Should not be used to mean *angry.*

May of. See **Of.**

Mean. Means *lowly* or *base.* Should not be used to mean *cruel, vicious, unkind,* or *ill-tempered.*

Messrs. The plural of *Mr.* Like *Mr., Messrs.* should never be used without a name or names following it. (See Rule 318.)

Vulgar: Messrs., will you come in? [To say this is like saying, "Mister, will you come in?" or "Mrs., I have come."]
Right: Gentlemen, will you come in?
Right: Messrs. Zangwill and Barrie met the Messrs. McCarthy.

Midst. The expressions *our midst, your midst,* and *their midst* preceded by a preposition have been so much censured by critics and have gathered so many ludicrous associations, that, whether or not they are justifiable, they are best avoided. Instead of

"in our midst," say "in the midst of us" or "among us." Instead of "from our midst," say "from the midst of us" or "from among us." Or else, substitute for *midst* some noun such as *neighborhood, community, fellowship*, etc.

Might of. See **Of.**

Miss. Like *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, and *Messrs.*, *Miss*, when used as a title, must always be followed by a name. (Cf. **Messrs.**)

Vulgar: My dear Miss:
Right: My dear Madam: [or] My dear Miss Smith,

Most. A puerility for *almost.* (See Rule 5.)

Mrs. The combination of *Mrs.* with a husband's title is a vulgarism. *Mrs.* may be followed only (1) by the woman's surname, (2) by her husband's Christian name (or initials) and surname, or (3) if the woman is a widow, by her own Christian name and surname; the husband's *title*, if stated at all, should be put in another part of the sentence.

Right: Mrs. Boughton. [1]
Right: Mrs. John C. Boughton. [2]
Right (for a widow): Mrs. Mary Dole. [3]
Vulgar: Mrs. Professor Yates, Mrs. Dr. Fairbanks, Mrs. President Hughes, Mrs. Bishop Ross, Mrs. Rev. Fisher, Mrs. Captain Johnson.
Right: Mrs. Richard E. Yates; Mrs. Fairbanks, wife of Dr. Fairbanks; Mrs. Louisa Hughes, widow of President Hughes; Mrs. Jeremiah Ross; Mrs. Noah Fisher, Mrs. C. V. Johnson.

Mushroom. See **Toadstool.**

Must of. See **Of.**

Mutual. Incorrect, according to modern usage, in the sense of *shared in common;* for this meaning the proper adjective is *common. Mutual*, properly used, means *reciprocal, interchanged.*

Wrong: As we conversed, we found that we had several mutual friends in Portland. [The title of Dickens's novel *Our Mutual Friend* is a quotation from some ill-educated persons in the story; it therefore furnishes no good argument for the correctness of the expression "mutual friend."]
Right: As we conversed, we found that we had several common friends in Portland.

Wrong: The two men had a mutual interest in sculpture.
Right: . . . a common interest in sculpture.
Right: They practiced mutual forebearance and aid [*i.e.*, each one helped and bore with the other]. — Their faces showed a mutual hatred [*i.e.*, showed that each hated the other]. — Mutual friendship [*i.e.*, friendship interchanged between two persons]. — Common friendship [*i.e.*, friendship shared by two persons for a third].

Near by. Bad English when used as an adjective. (See Rule 4.)

Wrong: A near-by house.
Right: A neighboring, or adjacent, house; [or] A house that stood near by.

Nearly. Often misused for *near.*

Wrong: He came nearly getting hurt.
Right: He came near getting hurt.

Neither. See **Either.**

Nice. Means *keen and precise in discrimination,* or *delicately or precisely made;* as "a nice judge of values," "a nice discrimination." Should not be used loosely. Say not "a nice fellow," but "an agreeable, or admirable, or conscientious, or honorable fellow"; not "a nice time," but "a pleasant time"; not "He is nice to us," but "He is kind or courteous to us." Choose the adjective that expresses your meaning definitely.

No good. A vulgarism when used adjectively. Say "worthless," "of no value."

No place. See **Any place.**

No use. Incorrect when used adjectively. Say "of no use," "of no value," or "unsuccessful."

Notorious. Means *of bad repute;* as "a notorious gambler." Not to be used for *famous* or *celebrated.*

Not to exceed. Should not be used except in giving or quoting orders or directions. Often misused for *not more than.*

Right: They were authorized to spend any sum, not to exceed $500,000. [See Rule 271 *f.*]
Wrong: The trains are composed of not to exceed twenty cars.
Right: The trains are composed of not more than twenty cars.

Nowhere near. A vulgarism for *not nearly.*

Observance. Means *the act of paying respect or obedience.* Not to be confused with *observation,* which means *the act of inspecting, looking at.*

Right: The observance of Good Friday.
Right: From his observation of the sky, he judged that a storm was approaching.

Observation. See **Observance.**

Of. *Could of, may of, might of, must of, should of,* and *would of* are illiterate vulgarisms for *could have, may have, might have, must have, should have,* and *would have.*

Of three years old. See **Old.**

Off of. Incorrect for *off*.

Wrong: Keep off of the grass.
Right: Keep off the grass.

Old. Illogical: A child of three years old.
Right: A child of three years; [or] A child three years old.

On the side. A vulgarism for *incidental*, *collateral*, *occasional*, or the corresponding adverbs.

One. Should never be preceded immediately by *a*.

Crude: Not a one was hurt.
Right: Not one of them was hurt.

Ones. Avoid the crude expression "the ones." Say "those."

Crude: The ones who are ready may come.
Right: Those who are ready may come.

Or. Should not be correlated with *neither;* use *nor*.

Wrong: Neither the long Arctic night or any other cause . . .
Right: Neither the long Arctic night nor any other cause . . .

Other times. *Sometimes* is an adverb; *other times* is not. Say "at other times." (See Rules 4 *b* and 92.)

Ought. The combination of *ought* with *had* is a conspicuous vulgarism (See Exercises XVI and XVII.)

Wrong: You hadn't ought to have entered.
Right: You ought not to have entered.

Wrong: We ought to send, had we not?
Right: We ought to send, ought we not?

Out loud. A puerility for *aloud*.

Outside (1). Does not require *of* following. Say simply "outside."

Right: Outside the barn the cattle were shivering.

Outside (2). *Outside of* should not be used for *aside from*.

Wrong: Outside of this mistake, it is very good.
Right: Aside from this mistake, it is very good.

Over with. Crude. Say "over."

Crude: The regatta is over with.
Right: The regatta is over.

Overly. A vulgarism. Say "over." (See Rule 5.)

Vulgar: I'm not overly anxious.
Right: I'm not over-anxious.

Pair, set. Singular, not plural, forms.

Wrong: Two pair of gloves and three set of chisels.
Right: Two pairs of gloves and three sets of chisels.

Partake of. Means *to take a part (of something) in common with others, to share with others;* as "Good and evil alike partake of the air and the sunshine," "The whole delegation partook of his hospitality." The use of *partake of* as if it were synonymous with *eat* is a blunder and usually an affectation. For illustration see the second *Bad* example under Rule 21.

Party. Means *a person or group of persons taking part (in some transaction).* A vulgarism when used to mean simply *person.*

Right: The parties to the marriage were both young.
Vulgar: The party who wrote that article must have been a scholar.

Peek. A colloquialism for *peep, look slyly;* not proper in a formal context.

Per. Use *per* with Latin words, such as *annum, diem, cent.;* not, as a rule, with English words.

Inelegant: Three dollars per day; one suicide per week; seven robberies per month; $3200 per year; two deaths per thousand; thirteen cents per gallon.
Right: Three dollars a day [or *per diem*]; one suicide a week; seven robberies a month; $3200 a year [or *per annum*]; two deaths for every thousand; thirteen cents a gallon.

Per cent. An adverb-phrase, not a noun. The noun is *percentage.* (See Rule 4.)

Wrong: A large per cent. were Chinese.
Right: Twenty *per cent.* were Chinese. [See Rules 220 *b* and 290].
Right: A large percentage were Chinese.

Phase. Means *appearance* or *aspect;* as "That phase of the question I haven't considered." Should not be used without intelligent regard to its meaning.

Bad: I began to indulge in all the different phases of college pleasure.
Right: I began to indulge in all the different kinds of college pleasure.

Phenomena. See **Data.**

Piano. Should not be used to mean *instruction in piano-playing.*

Crude: She is taking piano.
Right: She is taking piano lessons.

Piece. A provincialism when used in the sense of *distance* or *short distance.*

Plan. Should not be combined with *on.* Say simply "plan."

Wrong: We planned on taking a walk.
Right: We planned taking a walk; [or] We planned to take a walk.

Plenty (1). A vulgarism when used as an adjective. Say "plentiful." (See Rule 4.)

Wrong: Wheat is plenty.
Right: Wheat is plentiful.
Right: There is plenty of wheat.

Plenty (2). Incorrect when used as an adverb. (See Rule 4.)

Wrong: It is plenty good enough.
Right: It is quite good enough.

Portray. Means *to make a picture of.* Should not be used in the sense of *narrate* or *explain.*

Postal. Inelegant for *postal card.*

Posted. Incorrect for *informed.*

Wrong: Keep me posted.
Right: Keep me informed.

Wrong: He is well posted about politics.
Right: He is well informed about politics.

Prefer. The thing above which something is said to be preferred should be made the object of the preposition *to*, never put into a *than* clause.

Wrong: I should prefer to go there than anywhere else.
Right: I should prefer going there to going anywhere else.

Propose. Means *to offer.* Should not be used for *to purpose* or *to intend*

Wrong: I did not propose to divulge the secret.
Right: I did not purpose [or intend] to divulge the secret.

Proposition. Means *a thing proposed* or *the act of proposing*; as "He made a proposition to sell." Should not be used without intelligent regard to its meaning. Avoid especially the use of *proposition* for *work* or *task.*

Vulgar: To sink that shaft was a hard proposition.
Right: To sink that shaft was a hard piece of work.
Bad: The library-buffet car is the most comfortable proposition on wheels.
Right: The library-buffet car is the most comfortable vehicle on wheels.

Proven. Not in good use. Say "proved."

Providing. A vulgarism for *provided.*

Right: I will lend it, provided he agrees to take good care of it

Put in. A vulgarism for *spend* or *occupy.*

Wrong: I put in three hours in trying to memorize it.
Right: I spent three hours, etc.

Put in an appearance. A vulgarism for *appear.*

Quality. Means *characteristic* or *trait;* as "The qualities of birch bark are lightness of color, thinness, and smoothness." Should not be used without intelligent regard to its meaning.

Bad: The social qualities of college life are more in evidence in the winter. [See Rule 14.]
Right: The social activities of college life are more apparent in the winter.

Bad: He gives three qualities of a business man: Have something to say, say it, and stop talking.
Right: He gives three maxims for a business man: Have something to say, say it, and stop talking.

Quite. Means (*a*) *wholly;* as "The stream is now quite dried up"; or (*b*) *greatly, very;* as "We could see it quite distinctly." A provincialism when used in the sense of *slightly, not very.*

Wrong: The room is quite large, but not large enough for any one to be comfortable in.
Right: The room is moderately large, but not large enough for any one to be comfortable in.

Quite a few. Incorrect for *a good many* or *a considerable number.*

Quite a little. Incorrect for *a considerable amount* or *a good deal.*

Raise (1). A vulgarism when applied to human beings, in the sense of *rear, bring up.*

Raise (2). Often confounded with *rise.* Remember that *raise* is the causative of *rise; i.e., to raise* means *to cause to rise.* Therefore *raise* must always have an object. Remember the principal parts of each verb:

I rise I rose I have risen.
I raise I raised I have raised.

(See Exercises III, IV.)

Raise (3). A vulgarism when used as a noun. (See Rule 4.)

Bad: He secured a raise of salary.
Right: He secured an increase of salary; [or] His salary was raised.

Rarely ever. A vulgarism. Say "rarely" or "hardly ever." Cf. Seldom ever.

Bad: He rarely ever smiles.
Right: He rarely smiles.
Right: He hardly ever smiles.

Real. A puerility for *very.* (See Rule 4.)

Childish: It is real handsome.
Right: It is very handsome.

Reason. Do not complete such an expression as *the reason is* with (*a*) a *because* clause, (*b*) a *because of* phrase, (*c*) a *due to* phrase, or (*d*) an *on account of* phrase; complete it with a *that* clause. (See Rule 117, and Exercise XLII.)

Illogical: The reason he was offended was because they were arrogant.
Illogical: The reason he was offended was because of their arrogance.
Illogical: The reason he was offended was due to their arrogance.
Illogical: The reason he was offended was on account of their arrogance.
Right: The reason he was offended was that they were arrogant.

Remember. The name of the thing remembered should not be preceded by *of*.

Wrong: I remember of meeting him.
Right: I remember meeting him.

Reverend, Honorable. Should be preceded by *the*, and should never be followed immediately by a surname. (See Rules 269 and 276.)

Vulgar: Rev. Carter.
Vulgar: The Reverend Carter.

Right: The Reverend Mr. Carter.
Right: The Reverend Amos Carter.
Right: The Reverend Dr. Temple.

Rig. A provincialism for *carriage*, *buggy*, or *wagon*.

Right away, right off. Not in good use. Say "immediately," "at once," or "directly."

Right off. See **Right away.**

Run. Improper in the sense of *manage* or *operate*.

Said. See **Say.**

Same (1). No longer in good use as a pronoun.

Vulgar: We will repair the engine and ship same [or the same] to you next week.
Right: We will repair the engine and ship it to you next week.

Inelegant: The principal of the bonds was paid and the same canceled. [See Rule 90 *a*.]
Right: The principal of the bonds was paid and the bonds were canceled.

Same (2). *The same as* should not be used for *in the same way as* or *just as*.

Wrong: The draft is treated the same as a check is treated.
Right: The draft is treated just as a check is treated.

Say. Should not be used to mean *give orders*, with an infinitive as object.

Crude: The guard said to go back.
Right: The guard ordered us [or told us] to go back.

Scare. See **Frighten.**

School. Should not be used for *college.*

Search. The phrase "in search for" is incorrect; say "in search of."

Right: The lion goes in search of sheep.

Seem. "Can't seem" is a vulgarism. Say "seem unable," or "do not seem able."

Seldom ever. A vulgarism. Say "seldom" or "hardly ever." Cf **Rarely ever.**

Seldom or ever. A vulgarism. Say "seldom if ever."

Selection. Means *a thing selected*; as "He played a selection from Wagner." Should not be used where there is no idea of selecting.

Bad: Our class prophet then read an amusing selection, in which he satirized his classmates.
Right: Our class prophet then read an amusing composition [or skit, or squib, or piece], in which, etc.

Set (1). Often confounded with *sit.* Remember that *set* is the causative of *sit; i.e., to set* means *to cause to sit.* Remember the principal parts of each verb:

I sit	I sat	I have sat.
I set	I set	I have set.

The use of *set* without an object, as expressing mere rest, is a vulgarism; say "sit," "stand," "lie," "rest," or "is set." (See Exercises V–VIII.)

Wrong: The pole sets firmly in the socket.
Right: The pole is set [or sits] firmly in the socket.
Wrong: The vase sets on the mantel.
Right: The vase stands [or rests] on the mantel.
Wrong: The boat sets lightly on the water.
Right: The boat lies [or rests] lightly on the water.

Set (2). *Set* for *sets* (plural). See **Pair.**

Shape. A vulgarism when used to mean *manner* or *condition.*

Wrong: They executed the maneuvers in good shape.
Right: They executed the maneuvers in an expert manner.
Wrong: He is in good shape for the debate.
Right: He is in good condition [or thoroughly prepared] for the debate.

Should of. See **Of.**

Show (1). A vulgarism for *play, opera, concert.*

Show (2). A vulgarism for *chance* or *promise.*

Vulgar : The freshman team had an excellent show of winning.
Right : The freshman team had an excellent chance of winning.

Show up. A vulgarism when used intransitively in the sense of *appear, attend, come,* or *be present;* and when used transitively in the sense of *show* or *expose.*

Sight. "A sight" is a vulgarism for *much, many, a great deal.*

Size. Never use *size* as an adjective; say "sized," or "of size."

Wrong : The different size dies are sorted.
Right : The different sized dies are sorted.

Wrong : Any size chain will do.
Right : A chain of any size will do.

Size up. A vulgarism for *estimate, judge, pass upon.*

Sleeper. See **Diner.**

Smoker. See **Diner.**

Snap. See **Vim.**

So (1). Should not be used for *so that.*

Wrong : They strapped it so it would hold.
Right : They strapped it so that it would hold.

So (2). A puerility when used alone to modify an adjective.

Weak : During the first semester I was so lonely.
Right : During the first semester I was very lonely.

Some. A vulgarism when used as an adverb. (See Rule 4.)

Wrong : He is some better to-day.
Right : He is somewhat [or a little] better to-day.

Some place. See **Any place.**

Sort. See **Kind.**

Sort of. See **Kind of.**

Specie. Means *gold or silver money. Species,* meaning *kind,* has the same form in the singular and the plural.

Right : The first species is more valuable than the other two species are.

Start. Often crudely used for *begin.*

Bad : Thinking she was dead, he started to cry.
Right : Thinking she was dead, he began to cry.

Started out. A crude expression for *set out, set off, made an excursion or trip, went on a walk or journey or jaunt.* The verb *start* is not objectionable as applied to the beginning of a journey, but the combination of this verb with *out* should be avoided.

Stop. Means *to cease* or *to cease from motion.* A vulgarism when used in the sense of *stay.*

Bad : Are you stopping with friends?
Right : Are you staying with friends?

Strata. See **Data.**

Subject, topic. A subject or a topic is a thing spoken about or thought about; the thing said or thought should not be called a subject or topic. (See Rule 117 and Exercise XLII.)

Wrong : The topic of the first paragraph tells of the French war.
Right : The topic of the first paragraph is the French war.

Wrong : The book is composed of many interesting subjects.
Right : The book deals with many interesting subjects; [or] The book is composed of passages on many interesting subjects.

Such (1). When *such* is completed by a relative clause, the relative pronoun of the clause should not be *who*, *which*, or *that;* it should be *as* (see *as* in a dictionary).

Wrong : I will act under such rules that may be fixed.
Right : I will act under such rules as may be fixed.

Wrong : All such persons present who consent will rise.
Right : All such persons present as consent will rise.

Such (2). When *such* is completed by a result clause, this clause should be introduced, not by *so that*, but by *that* alone.

Wrong : There was such a mist so that we couldn't see.
Right : There was such a mist that we couldn't see.

Such (3). Inaccurate when used with the value of an adverb.

Inaccurate : Such a good weapon had never before been seen.
Right : So good a weapon had never before been seen.

Sundown. A provincialism for *sunset.*

Sunup. A provincialism for *sunrise.*

Superior, inferior. Should never be limited by a *than* clause, but always by a *to* phrase.

Wrong : It was superior from every point of view than the lathe previously used.
Right : It was superior from every point of view to the lathe previously used.

Swell. A vulgarism when used as an adjective. (See Rule 4.)

Take. Should not be used for *study.*

Juvenile : I took Spanish and chemistry.
Right : I studied Spanish and chemistry.

Take in. A vulgarism for *attend* or *go to.*

Take it. Should not be used in introducing an example.

Bad: Take it in Wisconsin, the old-fashioned method of logging is becoming extinct.

Right: In Wisconsin, for example, the old-fashioned method of logging is becoming extinct.

Take stock in. See **Bank on.**

Team. Means a couple or group of animals or persons; as "a team of horses," "a team of athletes." A provincialism when applied to *one* animal or to a vehicle.

Wrong: Will you ride in my team?
Right: Will you ride in my buggy [or carriage, or wagon]?

Than, till, until. Often improperly used for *when*, as in the following *Wrong* sentences. (See Rule 117.)

Wrong: Scarcely had he mounted the wagon than the horse started.
Right: Scarcely had he mounted the wagon when the horse started.
Wrong: We had hardly got there and put things in order till Jenks came.
Right: We had hardly got there and put things in order when Jenks came.

That. Should not be used as an adverb. (Cf. **This**, and see Rule 4.)

Wrong: He went only that far.
Right: He went only so far.
Wrong: If it is that bad, we must retreat.
Right: If it is so bad [or so bad as that], we must retreat.
Wrong: He didn't want that much, did he?
Right: He didn't want so much as that, did he?

That there. See **This here.**

These here. See **This here.**

This. Should not be used as an adverb. (Cf. **That**, and see Rule 4.)

Wrong: This much is certain.
Right: Thus much is certain.
Wrong: Having come this far . . .
Right: Having come thus far [or as far as this] . . .
Wrong: The water hasn't ever before been this high.
Right: The water hasn't ever before been so high as this.

This here, these here, that there, those there. Gross vulgarisms. Say "this," "these," "that," or "those."

Those there. See **This here.**

Through. Inelegant when used as in the following sentence:

Wrong: He is through writing.
Right: He has finished writing; [or] He has done writing.

NOTE.—Never say "*is* finished" or "*is* done" in the sense above shown.

Till for *when*. See **Than**.

Toadstool. A synonym of *mushroom*. The common restriction of *mushroom* to edible fungi and of *toadstool* to poisonous ones is a misuse of the words.

Wrong: Is it a mushroom or a toadstool?
Right: Is it an edible mushroom or a poisonous mushroom? [or] Is it an edible or a poisonous toadstool?

Too, very. Neither of these words should immediately precede a past participle; say "too much," "very much."

Wrong: He is too exhausted to speak.
Right: He is too much exhausted to speak.
Wrong: He felt very insulted.
Right: He felt very much insulted.

Topic. See **Subject**.

Transpire. Means *to become known;* as "In spite of their efforts at concealment, the secret transpired." It is both affected and incorrect to use the word in the sense of *occur*.

Treat. Should be followed, when used to mean *discuss* or *speak of*, by *of*, not by *on* or *with*.

Wrong: The author treats on two subjects.
Right: The author treats of two subjects.

Trend. Means *direction;* as "The rivers of this land have a southern trend." Should not be used without regard to its proper meaning.

Bad: The egg business is only incidental to the general trend of the store.
Right: The egg business is only incidental to the general business of the store.

Try and. Should not be used for *try to*.

Inelegant: I shall try and get a good position.
Right: I shall try to get a good position.

Ugly. Means *repulsive to the eye*. A provincialism when used to mean *vicious, malicious*, or *ill-tempered*.

Bad: The horse has an ugly temper.
Right: The horse has a vicious temper.
Bad: The conductor acted very ugly.
Right: The conductor acted very discourteously [or uncivilly].

Underhanded. Prefer *underhand*.

Right: He used underhand methods.

Until for *when*. See **Than**.

Up. Should not be appended to the verbs *cripple, divide, end, finish, limber, open, polish, rest, scratch, settle, write*.

Wrong: He opened up the box and divided the money up among the men.
Right: He opened the box and divided the money among the men.

Up to date. A vulgarism when used as an adjective; correctly used as an adverbial modifier.
Vulgar: His house is strictly up to date.
Right: His house is thoroughly modern.
Right: He brought the history up to date.

Very with past participles. See **Too.**

Vim, snap. Not in good literary use. Say "vigor," "energy," or "spirit."

Violin. Should not be used to mean *instruction in violin playing.*
Crude: He has just begun violin.
Right: He has just begun to take violin lessons.

Vocal, voice. Should not be used to mean *instruction in vocal music.* (See Rule 4.)
Crude: Are you keeping on with your vocal?
Right: Are you keeping on with your singing lessons [or vocal practice]?
Crude: She is taking voice.
Right: She is taking singing lessons.

Voice. See **Vocal.**

Wait on. A vulgarism for *wait for.*
Wrong: If I'm not there, don't wait on me.
Right: If I'm not there, don't wait for me.

Want (1). Should not be limited by a clause as in the following sentence:
Wrong: I want you should be happy.
Right: I want you to be happy.

Want (2). "Want in," "want out," "want through," etc., are vulgarisms.
Vulgar: Do you want in?
Right: Do you want to come in?

Way (1). A puerility for *away.* (See Rule 5.)
Wrong: Way up the hill I saw a deer.
Right: Away up the hill I saw a deer.

Way (2). Should not be used adverbially without a preposition governing it.
Wrong: When he acts that way . . .
Right: When he acts in that way . . .
Wrong: How could a sane man act the way Beals did?
Right: How could a sane man act in the way in which Beals acted? [or, better] . . . act as Beals did?

Ways for *way.* See **Falls.**

Well. This word when used merely to mark a transition (*e.g.*, "You know MacDonald, of course. Well, last night as he stepped into his motor. . .") is a colloquialism, not proper in a formal context.

When. Often improperly used for *that* in sentences like the following (see Rule 117):
Wrong: It was on a rainy day in April when I first saw Chicago.
Right: It was on a rainy day in April that I first saw Chicago.
["That I first saw Chicago" is a substantive clause in apposition to "it."]

Where (1). Often misused for *that* as in the following sentence:

Wrong: I see in this morning's paper where Cronin has been caught.
Right: I see in this morning's paper that Cronin has been caught.

Where (2). Do not use "where to" in the sense of *whither;* omit the *to.*

Wrong: Where are you going to?
Right: Where are you going?

Which. Should not be used as a relative pronoun in referring to a person.

Wrong: The people which do that are rascals.
Right: The people that do that are rascals.

While. Means (*a*) *during the time in which*, (*b*) *though*, or (*c*) *whereas;* as (*a*) "I played while he sang;" (*b*) "While this may be true, it does not content me;" (*c*) "Yours is in good condition, while mine is quite worn out." Should not be used loosely without regard to its meaning.

Wrong: On one side was a grove, while on the other was a river.
Right: On one side was a grove, on the other a river.

Who. Should not, as a rule, be used in referring to animals; use *which.*

Whose. The possessive case of *who*, not of *which.* Objectionable when it refers to inanimate things. Say "of which," unless the use of this expression makes the sentence extremely awkward — which is rarely the case.

Crude: Soon we came to a swamp, on whose bank stood a hunter's cabin.
Right: Soon we came to a swamp, on the bank of which stood a hunter's cabin.

Win out. See **Lose out.**

Wire. Rather vulgar in the sense of *telegraph* or *telegram.* (See Rule 4.)

Woods for *wood.* See **Falls.**

Would better, would best, would rather. Correct, but often used under a misapprehension. See **Had better.**

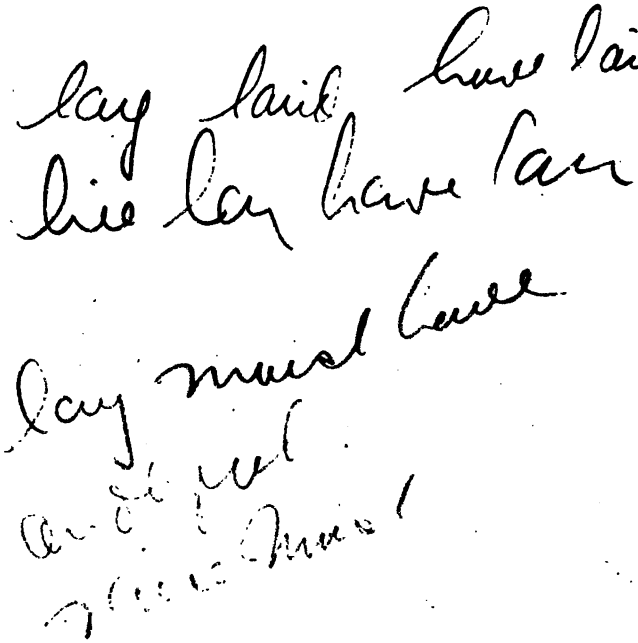
Would have. Often incorrectly used in *if* clauses instead of *had.*

Wrong: If he would have stood by us, we might have won.
Right: If he had stood by us, we might have won.

Would of. See **Of.**

Write up. A vulgarism. Say "report," "relate," "describe," or simply "write."

You was. A vulgarism. *You*, though it may designate one person, is grammatically plural, and its verb must always be plural. Say "you were." (See Exercise XVIII.)



APPENDIX A

Exercises for Breaking Certain Bad Habits in Writing and Speaking

Exercises chiefly in Grammar

I. See *Lay* in the Glossary. Write three sentences containing present indicative forms of the verb *lie* (in the sense of *recline*), three containing the present participle, three containing past tense forms, and three containing perfect tense forms. Write three sentences containing present indicative forms of the verb *lay*, three containing the present participle, three containing past tense forms, and three containing perfect tense forms. *Lay* and *lie*

II. See *Lay* in the Glossary. Write the following sentences, filling each blank with some form of the verb *lie* or some form of the verb *lay:* 1. The logs are ———ing where they fell. 2. Yesterday I ——— it on the grass. 3. I will ——— down and rest. 4. They ——— still and said nothing. 5. Inmates are not allowed to ——— in bed after six o'clock. 6. They let the torpedo ——— on the railroad. 7. I have ——— all his things in readiness. 8. The scythe ——— in the rain so long that it got rusty. 9. ———ing quietly in the grass, he watched. 10. Have they ——— their wet hats on the parlor table? 11. Coming from Florida, I was surprised to find the snow still ———ing on the ground. *Lay* and *lie*

III. See *Raise* in the Glossary. Write three sentences containing present indicative forms of the verb *rise*, three containing the present participle, three containing past tense forms. Write three sentences containing present indicative forms of the verb *raise*, three containing the present participle, three containing past tense forms, and three containing perfect tense forms. *Raise* and *rise*

IV. See *Raise* in the Glossary. Write the following sentences, filling each blank with some form of the verb *raise* or some form of the verb *rise:* 1. Don't be embarrassed; ——— up and speak. 2. A man suddenly ——— up and interrupted. 3. I will ——— up and deny it publicly. *Raise* and *rise*

4. Slowly the load yielded to the upward force; and little by little it ——— until it reached the desired point. 5. It was too late; the balloon had already ——— ten feet. 6. Has the river ——— at all during the night?

Set and *sit*

V. See *Set* in the Glossary. Write three sentences containing present indicative forms of the verb *set*, three containing the present participle, three containing past tense forms, and three containing perfect tense forms. Write three sentences containing present indicative forms of the verb *sit*, three containing the present participle, three containing past tense forms, and three containing perfect tense forms.

Set and *sit*

VI. See *Set* in the Glossary. Write the following sentences, filling each blank with some form of the verb *set* or some form of the verb *sit:* 1. The ink-well doesn't ——— level. 2. I enjoy ——— in the dark. 3. How long we had ——— there I do not know. 4. He brought the little girl in his arms and ——— her in a chair by the fire.

Set

VII. Comment on the use of *set* in each of the following sentences, correcting all errors: 1. Around the table set four chairs. 2. She left the umbrella setting against the chair. 3. You have set a hard task. 4. He saw the pie setting on the doorstep. 5. With the spirit level, he made the table set exactly horizontal. 6. Did you notice the order in which the cups were set? 7. Ready; get set; go. 8. The bluffs appear to set back some distance from the shore.

Lay, lie, raise, rise, set, and *sit*

VIII. See *Lay*, *Raise*, and *Set* in the Glossary. Write a short story about a balloon ascension, using the words *lie, lying, lay, lain, laying, laid, rise, rising, rose, risen, raise, raising, raised, sit, sitting, sat, set,* and *setting.*

Done and *seen*

IX. Remember the principal parts of *do* and *see.*

I do	I did	I have done
I see	I saw	I have seen

Write five sentences each containing past tense forms of the verbs *do* and *see*, and five sentences each containing *done* and *seen* properly used.

Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *did* or *saw:* 1. I ——— the damage that the fire ——— 2. There we ——— a magician, who ——— some tricks. 3. I ——— my duty and I ——— it. 4. He ——— the work with his own hands; I ——— him do it. 5. She ——— that it would do harm, and so she ——— all she could to stop it.

X. Remember the principal parts of *write*, *rise*, *ride*, and *drive*: *Write, rise, ride, drive*

I write	I wrote	I have written
I rise	I rose	I have risen
I ride	I rode	I have ridden
I drive	I drove	I have driven

Write sentences containing perfect tense forms and past-perfect tense forms of *write*, *rise*, *ride*, and *drive*.

XI. Remember the principal parts of the verb *run*: *Run* misused for *ran*

I run	I ran	I have run

Write five sentences containing the verb *run* in the past tense, and five containing the form *run*, properly used.

XII. Notice the relation between the past tense and the perfect tense of the following verbs: *Began, sang, sprang, rang, drank, ran, swam*

I began	I have begun
I sang	I have sung
I sprang	I have sprung
I rang	I have rung
I drank	I have drunk
I ran	I have run
I swam	I have swum

Write sentences containing perfect tense forms and past-perfect tense forms of the foregoing verbs.

XIII. Notice the relation between the past tense and the perfect tense of the following verbs: *Broke, froze, tore*

I broke	I have broken
I froze	I have frozen
I tore	I have torn

Write sentences containing perfect active, past-perfect active, and passive forms of the foregoing verbs.

XIV. Remember the principal parts of *know*, *throw*, and *blow*: *Know, throw, blow*

I know	I knew	I have known
I throw	I threw	I have thrown
I blow	I blew	I have blown

Write sentences containing past tense forms and perfect tense forms of the foregoing verbs.

XV. Remember the principal parts of the verb *go*: *Went* for *gone*

I go	I went	I have gone

Write ten sentences using perfect tense forms of this verb.

XVI. See *Ought* in the Glossary. The following sentences are grossly incorrect. Correct and rewrite them. "Had ought"

1. He hadn't ought to refuse. 2. I'd ought to accept, hadn't I? 3. Don't you think she'd ought to have gone? 4. No man had ought to endure that, had he? 5. If that house was empty, then he had ought to have gone to the next. 6. We really ought to help him—don't you think we had?

"Had ought"

XVII. See *Ought* in the Glossary. Write ten sentences using *ought* correctly, five of them stating present duties, and five, past duties.

"You was"

XVIII. See *You was* in the Glossary. Write the following sentences, filling in the blanks with *were:* 1. Where ——— you, Harry. 2. I thought you ——— lying down. 3. You ———n't to blame, my boy. 4. ——— you present, Father? 5. When ——— you born, young man?

Agreement of verb and subject

XIX. Study Rule 29. Write the following sentences, filling the blanks in each sentence with one of the words bracketed after the sentence. In parentheses after each sentence, state the reason why the word chosen to fill the blank ought to be used. 1. The formal statement of the teachings and rules ——— set forth in the constitution. [is, are] 2. The distinction between economic and social causes often ——— arbitrary. [seems, seem] 3. In my opinion his attentions to the postmaster's daughter, after she had shown him she did not like him, ——— very presumptuous. [was, were] 4. The strain of all the difficulties and vexations and anxieties ——— more than he could bear. [was, were] 5. Only a few papers of this edition, which is printed at two P.M., ——— to the newsdealers. [goes, go] 6. In spite of all obstacles, the construction of the three hundred trestles and the twenty scaffolds ——— completed. [was, were] 7. His manipulation of the keys, stops, and pedals ——— miraculous to a novice. [look, looks] 8. One of the arguments he made to the delegates ——— to me especially convincing. [seem, seems] 9. The exact meaning of such words as *inspiration*, *prophecy*, and *orthodox* at first ——— the laymen. [puzzle, puzzles] 10. His diligent study of explosives, especially of such as might be used to destroy battleships, ——— at last rewarded. [were, was] 11. The manner in which he uses mixed metaphors, split infinitives, and dangling participles ——— lack of training. [show, shows] 12. His use of the various machines, especially of the lathes, the presses, and the forges, ——— him a born mechanic. [prove, proves]

Concord of *each*, *every*, etc.

XX. Study Rules 31, 32. Copy the following sentences, filling each of the blanks with a pronoun or with one of the

words *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*, *has*, and *have:* 1. Each of the conspirators went quietly to ——— own home and not one of them ——— suspected by ——— neighbors or by the police. 2. Every one there declared ——— in favor of the measure. 3. It makes no difference whether it was Tracy or Reid; neither of those men ——— worthy to raise ——— eyes to my daughter. 4. A person never feels sure that ——— themes will be charitably read by either of those professors; either one of them ——— likely to be severe. 5. No one had any idea what ——— fate would be; every student from the best to the poorest ——— in anxious suspense. 6. ——— either of the boys at home? 7. ——— every one here received ——— money? 8. ——— each of you fully determined to abide by ——— promises? 9. ——— neither of my assistants yet brought ——— tools? 10. Everybody put on ——— holiday clothes. 11. If anybody makes a motion to resist, arrest ——— at once.

Nominative or objective case of *who*

XXI. Study Rules 33–36, particularly Rule 33 *a*. Write the following sentences, filling each blank with *who* or *whom*. State in parentheses after each sentence the construction of the word inserted. 1. They sent invitations to all ——— they thought would accept. 2. This money comes from Boyle, ——— you know is very liberal. 3. He refused to pardon Mackey, ——— he had every reason to believe the police had caught red-handed. 4. The bookkeeper, ———, I cannot doubt, committed these errors, must be discharged. 5. The vacancy was filled by Clayson, ——— the manager said ought to be promoted. 6. The vacancy was filled by Clayson ——— the manager thought worthy of promotion. 7. An instance is furnished by Saint Paul, ———, the New Testament tells us, was at first an opponent of Christianity. 8. The throne was held by a king ——— historians believe to have been insane. 9. The throne was held by a king ——— historians say was insane. 10. ——— did he say the architect was? 11. ——— did he say the board chose as architect? 12. ——— do you believe this impostor to be? 13. ——— do you think will preside? 14. ——— do you consider to be the fastest runner? 15. ——— do you think is the fastest runner?

Nominative or objective case of *who* or *whoever*

XXII. Study Rules 33–36, particularly Rule 33 *b*. Write the following sentences, filling the blank in each with one of the words bracketed after the sentence. State in parentheses after each sentence the construction of the inserted word. 1. He stopped ——— he met. [whoever, whomever] 2. It will greatly assist ——— lives in the country. [whoever, whomever] 3. ——— brings me the

cup I will make my son-in-law. [whoever, whomever] 4. For ——— loves his country I have a message. [whoever, whomever] 5. Even food and shelter are withheld from ——— the pope has excommunicated. [whoever, whomever] 6. Every door is shut against ——— the count has said is objectionable to him. [whoever, whomever] 7. A discussion followed as to ——— should steer. [who, whom] 8. There was no doubt as to ——— the speaker meant. [who, whom] 9. They were anxious about ——— the victim would be. [who, whom]

Elliptical *than* and *as* clauses

XXIII. Study Rules 33–38, particularly Rule 38. Write the following sentences, filling each blank with one of the words bracketed after the blank. State in parentheses after each sentence the construction of the inserted words. 1. She is not so clever as ——— [he, him]. 2. She hated both of ——— [we fellows, us fellows], but ——— [I, me] more than ——— [he, him]. 3. Are they better qualified than ——— [we, us] to judge? 4. No one could regret it more than ——— [I, me]. 5. She is so deceitful that I would trust a convict sooner than ——— [she, her]. 6. O king, no man is so wise as ——— [thee, thou]. 7. Her hasty action injured herself more than ——— [I, me]. 8. The faculty suffered more than ——— [we, us] who were expelled. 9. The conspirators plotted shrewdly, but the detective was shrewder than ——— [they, them]. 10. For a brief time no one was so famous as ——— [I, me]. 11. My lord, thy power wanes; the king favors thy rival more than ——— [thou, thee]. 12. Though the queen protested, the statesman, stronger than ——— [her, she], prevailed. 13. Sir, we are less worthy than ——— [they, them]; we ask that they be promoted rather than ——— [we, us]; honor them rather than ——— [we, us].

General exercise in the use of cases

XXIV. Study Rules 33–38. Write the following sentences, filling each blank with one of the words or groups of words bracketed after the blank. State in parentheses after each sentence the construction of the inserted word or words. 1. She prepared a lunch for my brother and ——— [I, me] to take with us. 2. All ——— [us, we] fellows met to consider the question of ——— [who, whom] should be sent. [What is the subject of "should be sent"? What is the object of the preposition "of"? See *Substantive Clause* in the Grammatical Vocabulary.] 3. It is a question of veracity between ——— [he, him] and ——— [I, me.] 4. She did not refer to ——— [we, us] girls at all. 5. It is unjust to expect ——— [she and I; her and me] to do all the work. 6. Henceforth all is over between you and

——— [I, me]. 7. That was ——— [I, me] ——— [who, whom] you heard last night. 8. It is not ——— [us, we] who are to blame; it is ——— [they, them]. 9. I am at a loss ——— [who, whom] to depend on. 10. Was this my old comrade? I could not believe that this ragged beggar was ——— [he, him]. 11. First he spoke of Jezebel and Athaliah; ———[them, they] he said were types of depravity. Then he considered Jael and Miriam; ——— [them, they] he apostrophized as patriots. 12. To you Englishmen as well as to ——— [we Americans; us Americans] his name is dear. 13. Hetherington and I thought it was necessary that the messengers chosen should be ——— [us, we] rather than ——— [them, they] who were secret traitors. 14. The cause so dear to you and ——— [me, I] has failed. 15. All the responsibility rests on Jane and ——— [I, me]. 16. He wanted ——— [my father and I; my father and me] to invest in a corporation managed by ——— [he and his father; him and his father]. 17. ——— [him, he] and all his associates I repudiate. 18. A large estate was left to ——— [she and her sister; her and her sister]. 19. You ought not to be burdened with ——— [he and his family; him and his family]. 20. Do I know Raycroft? Why, I used to visit ——— [he and his wife; him and his wife] every Sunday. 21. The landlord was inexorable with the poor widow; he drove ——— [she and her children; her and her children] into the street. 22. Let ——— [he that is without sin; him that is without sin] cast the first stone. 23. ——— [they that are negligent; them that are negligent] he admonishes; ——— [they that are faithful; them that are faithful] are commended.

Adjectives misused for adverbs

XXV. Study Rule 4. Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with adverbs: 1. Do it as ——— as you can. 2. He managed it very ———. 3. She stitched much ——— than I. 4. You'd better treat me ——— than you treated him. 5. The house was furnished as ——— as one could wish.

Misuse of *like*

XXVI. See *Like* in the Glossary. Complete the following sentences: 1. I wish I could run like ———. 2. If you find him engaged at his gymnastics, like ———. 3. She sat for a long time deep in thought, like ———.

Copy the following sentences, filling the blanks with *as*, *as if*, or *like*: 4. Don't act ——— a baby. 5. ——— all his predecessors, he was despotic. 6. We never quarrel now ——— we did when we were boys. 7. He was hanged, just ——— a common spy. 8. He was hanged, just ———

he had been a common spy. 9. He votes ——— his father did. 10. She sings ——— she had a cold.

Shall and *will*

XXVII. Study Rules 46–50. Write the following sentences, filling each blank in sentences 1–10 with *shall* or *will*, and each blank in sentences 11–20 with *should* or *would*. State in parentheses after each sentence why the auxiliaries you have inserted are correct. 1. I think I ——— find the study easy. 2. I am the carpenter you engaged. ——— my men begin work to-day? 3. "——— you see Niagara on your way east?" "No; I don't think I ———." 4. "Oh Mr. Meyer, the singer I engaged has disappointed me. ——— you sing for me to-night?" "Yes, I ——— sing for you." 5. "Hello, Meyer, ——— you be busy to-night?" "Yes; I ——— sing at Mrs. West's to-night." 6. I ——— probably fail in the examination. 7. I am very anxious. If no one assists me, I ——— starve. But sell my library? No! I ——— never do that. 8. "If you eat this rabbit, ——— you be kept awake all night?" "Probably; but by Jove, I ——— eat it anyway." 9. If I miss another class, I ——— be required to take an extra examination. 10. I ——— probably get a cool reception there, but I ——— go, whatever happens. 11. I ——— not have supposed the price would be so high. 12. I ——— have been surprised if he had failed. 13. Perceiving that I ——— soon need a light, I determined that I ——— buy a lantern. 14. I fully understood that I ——— be censured if I did it. 15. ——— you have supposed that the city would grow so fast? 16. We feared we ——— get caught in the rain. 17. Since the car was so late, I knew I ——— miss my class. 18. It was so warm that we thought we ——— not need our overcoats. 19. ——— you have known him if he had not introduced himself? 20. Yes, even if he had not spoken, I think I ——— have known him.

Exercises chiefly in Sentence-Structure

Reference of pronouns

XXVIII. Study Rules 55–61. Rewrite the following sentences, correcting faulty reference: 1. On coming home from school, my brother found that Rover had fallen into the cistern. He was almost ready to sink. When he got him out, the water was running from him in streams and he was so exhausted that he could not stand. When he saw his condition, he feared he would die. 2. The nurse left some medicine, but Molly secretly resolved not to take it. When she made her next visit, she told her she thought she had greatly improved. 3. The directors offered to reward her liberally, but she begged them to give it to her father.

4. Portia and her maid dressed like lawyers and went to court. She found that Antonio had forfeited the bond. 5. The essay on planets is short and witty. After stating a few thoughts regarding them, he makes a digression. 6. But truth will always come out. In this case it occurred in the following way. 7. When the next man came to bat and knocked the ball to shortstop, he threw it over the first baseman's head. 8. She next removes the furniture from the parlor and sweeps it. 9. She prepares the vegetables for dinner and has it ready when her husband returns. 10. Some parts of the story I found interesting, but this was offset by so much dry, uninteresting reading. The descriptions he gives of the different characters are interesting. 11. The cadets at West Point are appointed by the members of Congress. On graduating, he receives a commission in the army. 12. He attached the hose to the tank and flushed it about once a month. 13. The sugar beet is an easy vegetable to grow; in a good season, a farmer gets fifteen tons of them from each acre. 14. The dam is not water-tight, but allows it to seep through.

XXIX. Study Rules 62–65, particularly Rules 63, 64. Complete the following sentences: 1. Arriving there late ———. 2. Stepping upon the platform ———. 3. Checking his horse as he neared the two straying children ———. 4. Having thus accidentally disclosed her identity to the policeman ———. 5. Having heard that you are a skillful portrait painter ———. Dangling participles

XXX. Study Rules 66–68. Complete the following sentences: 1. Without denying your statement ———. 2. Upon questioning his sister as to the truth of the report ———. 3. In removing the chimney of his lamp that evening ———. 4. Upon examining the letters that I found in the injured man's pocket ———. 5. After setting the vase in this very insecure position, naturally ———. Dangling gerund phrases

XXXI. Study Rules 69, 70. Complete the following sentences: 1. When a mere boy (he was certainly no more than ten years old at the time), ———. 2. Although a very instructive book, ———. 3. While moving about in disguise among his subjects, ———. 4. If in doubt as to what college you had better attend, ———. 5. When engaged in this work, if any friends came to see him, ———. 6. While thoroughly in sympathy with the plans you have told me about, ———. Dangling elliptical clauses

XXXII. Study Rules 77, 79, 80, 81. Rewrite the following sentences, improving the arrangement; make no changes Sentence order

except in the order of the members: 1. The top is a cylinder on the surface of which a number of strips one sixteenth of an inch thick and one inch above the surface, called knives, are placed. 2. These pulleys are connected with another set of pulleys of ten inch diameter at the lower part of the machine by belts. 3. He sometimes tried to discuss subjects that interested him with the Autocrat. 4. I judged that the fellow was a monk who had fled from the monastery by his gown and his air of trepidation. 5. He finally succeeded in drawing the spoon hook up close to the boat, on which he found a turtle. 6. Every one felt sure that Beiler had no chance of winning soon after he began to speak. 7. He tore up the tender letter which his mother had written him in a fit of peevish vexation. 8. Lamb playfully pretends to prove that the art of roasting pigs originated in China by an old manuscript. 9. The author here makes a digression proving that devil-fish actually exist and that they have been known to devour men, to make the story more real. 10. In a village on the Wisconsin River just above the point where it joins the Mississippi on a cold February afternoon I first saw the light of day. 11. There are two ways of chiseling at present in use among machinists that are equally effective. 12. The light causes a chemical action on the plate in the camera which is imperceptible to the eye. 13. The yacht is drawn up out of the water after every race on a small railway. 14. There was a pilot house just in front of the engine room which looked like a watchman's box. 15. He was taken out to the transport which was anchored off the coast in a row boat. 16. Keeping his opponent covered with his six-shooter, he collected all the money that was lying on the table in his hat. 17. How can a man write a theme when he has the problem of finding the equation of the common tangent to a hyperbola and an ellipse on his mind? 18. He adds the amounts of all checks received during the day on an adding machine. 19. I was able to save the motor car that had broken away from destruction by a happy accident. 20. Sometimes you will see an alligator lying in the sunshine on the bank eight feet long. 21. Members will please inform the steward of their intention to dine at the club upon their arrival to insure good service. 22. We demand the suppression of the traffic in liquors to be used for beverages by every lawful means.

Position of *only*, *almost*, and *ever*

XXXIII. Study Rule 78. Rewrite the following sentences, putting the misplaced adverbs in the proper positions: 1. The manufacture of sugar is only profitable in a large factory. 2. I only saw him once after that. 3. The office is only open in the forenoon. 4. I only need a few dollars

5. He only succeeded in stopping the horse after it had collided with an electric car and demolished the buggy. 6. He had almost got to the top when the rope broke. 7. I never expect to see the like again. 8. Do you ever remember to have seen the accused before?

Split infinitives

XXXIV. Study Rule 85. Rewrite the following sentences, correcting the split infinitives: 1. A considerable period is required to properly heat the eggs. 2. The acid is allowed to slowly percolate. 3. The glare of the fire seemed to completely light the city. 4. He reefed his canvas in order to better weather the storm. 5. Because of the confusion he was able to easily make his escape. 6. She was seen to slowly and steadily sink into the quicksand. 7. Are you willing to in any way assist us? 8. It is advisable to always keep the tank full.

Correlation

XXXV. Study Rule 112. Rewrite the following sentences, placing the correlative conjunctions in each before coördinate members: 1. It may either be read for pleasure or systematic study. 2. The bees had not only stung my brother, but my friend and me also. 3. I intend to assist him, both for the sake of his mother and himself. 4. Neither the fear of the king nor any one else retarded him. 5. I will neither give you money nor favor. 6. The crew was discouraged both on account of the prevalence of sickness and the bad weather. 7. Either he has not been here at all, or only for a few minutes. 8. They are neither permitted to read the newspapers, nor even old magazines. 9. He not only spoke all the principal languages of Europe, but of Asia also. 10. He could not be persuaded either by promises of money or promotion. 11. The trustees invite full investigation not only relative to the charges made but any other matters concerning the college. 12. The new truck can be used either for carrying a load up or down stairs.

Illogical coördination

XXXVI. Study Rule 97. The coördination in the following sentences is conspicuously illogical. Recast the sentences, making the grammatical relations correspond to the logical relations. 1. *Mrs. Dane's Defense* is a play in four acts and was written by Henry Arthur Jones. 2. The collapse was due to the undermining of the stratum and the vibrations caused by the cars had dislodged the walls. 3. The essay tells about chimney sweeps, and the author writes in his usual delightful style. 4. Alfalfa thrives in a high soil, which becomes too dry to nourish other plants, but alfalfa sends its roots down sometimes thirty feet for water. 5. A board fence surrounds the plant to keep stragglers from

wandering about the dangerous machinery, and besides many secret processes are used which the company does not wish to become known to outsiders. 6. He showed me some marbles which looked as if they had once been white but now they seemed to have been dropped into an ink bottle. 7. It undergoes here a process similar to the preceding one but the quantity of lime added is in this case smaller.

Practice in securing variety of subordination

XXXVII. Study the note under Rule 97. Recast the following sentences, using as many varieties of subordination as possible: 1. The name of this bar is the whiffletree and to it the traces are attached. 2. He ate his breakfast and then he went to his office. 3. It had a fine outlook and so we thought it would be a good camping ground. 4. It had not been watered for a week and it looked dry and wilted. 5. An electric bell is a form of motor and a motor is a machine for transforming electrical energy into power. 6. In the box is a battery and the poles of the battery are connected to binding posts. 7. The tube widens out at the end and is called the speaking trumpet. 8. The second tube is shorter than the first and is called the receiver. 9. I didn't want the paper at all, but I wanted to please the editor and I subscribed. 10. He is quicker and more capable than his rivals and he is sure to get the best of them. 11. The foundry is a low brick building and projecting above the roof is a huge chimney. 12. Presently she met a lady and asked her the way to the Hall. 13. The material was brought to the nearest station by rail and it was drawn to the mine by horses. 14. In the corner was a bureau and a mirror hung over it.

The *so* habit

XXXVIII. Study Rule 99. Recast the following sentences using as many varieties of subordination as possible: 1. She wished to make a good appearance so she borrowed a necklace. 2. He feared she would be corrupted by the court, so he kept her close at home. 3. This is a difficult piece of work so great care is necessary. 4. The cups did not match, so she sent them back. 5. He needed some little shoes as a model for his picture so his mother found for him the shoes that he himself had first worn. 6. I felt very tired and jaded so I could not listen very attentively. 7. The stalks of the wheat must be bent back so a large reel like a paddle-wheel is provided. 8. He wished to show deference to the strong religious principles of his host so he attended mass on Sunday.

Parallelism

XXXIX. Study Rule 111. Rewrite the following sentences, making parallel in form the members that perform similar functions: 1. Cheering was heard on the *Box-*

burgh, *Alabama*, and on the *Virginia*. 2. Many remarks were heard from the crowd, some people asserting that the horse's leg was out of joint, others that it was broken, and there were others who urged that the horse be shot at once. 3. He had created Belgium, saved Spain, and had rescued Turkey. 4. We were bent on seeing the exhibit and at the same time learn something of the metropolis. 5. The teamster got us out of this plight by driving a few miles eastward to a small camp, secured a piece of iron, and with some difficulty fashioned a pin that served our purpose. 6. Some of us were acquainted with chemistry, drawing, and with one of the modern languages. 7. Some of the men were allowed to take special work, such as to enter the track team, baseball, basketball team, or take crew work. 8. The chief ingredients are barley and hops, which are boiled together and the resulting liquid fermented and carbonated. 9. A pattern is made, and liquid iron run into the mould. 10. He could have opened the door by running a knife along the crack and slide the catch up. 11. She telegraphed him to come home at once or serious consequences would ensue.

Organization of long sentences by means of parallelism

XL. Study Rule 111 and the note under Rule 75. Make a diagram, like the one printed in that note, showing the parallelism of the following sentence:

Tennyson's *The Lady of Shalott* is a narrative poem relating how a mysterious lady, living on an island in a river within view of the castle of Camelot, was enjoined, under penalty of a mortal curse, to weave incessantly at a loom and never to look toward Camelot; how she continued for a while to observe the mystic decree, never even looking from the window, but observing the scenes near her island by the reflection of them in a mirror; how, weary with the task and the restraint, she one day saw in her mirror the image of a splendid knight riding by the river, hastened, forgetting the prohibition, to the window, gazed on the knight, and in so doing saw the castle of Camelot; and how, this act of disobedience bringing the curse upon her, she soon sickened and died.

For practice in the use of parallelisms, write a one-sentence summary of each of the following poems and stories: Tennyson's *Locksley Hall*, *Ulysses*, *The Talking Oak*, *A Dream of Fair Women*, *Lady Clare*, *The Captain;* Browning's *Love Among the Ruins*, *De Gustibus*, *Up at a Villa — Down in the City*, *Hervé Riel*, *The Laboratory*, *A Portrait;* Bret Harte's *The Outcasts of Poker Flat*, *The*

Luck of Roaring Camp; Hawthorne's *David Swan, A Rill from the Town Pump, The Wedding Knell.*

NOTE. — Be careful not to make any of the sentences of this exercise compound sentences; remember: a single main subject and predicate as the basis of each sentence. Also, try to use as many kinds of parallelism as possible. For the parallel members of one sentence use participial phrases; for those of another, use *how* clauses; for those of another, use *of* phrases; for those of another, use direct objects; and so on.

False parallelism

XLI. Study Rules 115, 116. Rewrite the following sentences, correcting the false parallelism: 1. The barley is thus steeped, washed, and at the same time absorbs oxygen. 2. The Gulf Stream is 50 miles wide, 2000 feet deep, and flows 90 miles a day. [See, regarding the figures in the preceding sentence, Rule 272 *a.*] 3. He had curly black hair, dark blue eyes, and wore glasses. 4. Coal burns brightly, slowly, and throws out much heat. 5. The incubator must be thoroughly cleaned, ventilated, and the inside apparatus put into good order. 6. On the west side are the offices of the president, treasurer, auditor, and the draughting room. 7. He said that the Russian peasants were dull, unprogressive, and that farm machinery is almost unknown to them. 8. Every man must have a military suit, a gun, and must report promptly at four. 9. Hazlitt tells of his experience on the way to the fight, at the fight, and of his return home. 10. The new elephant is six years old, five feet high, and it may be stated incidentally that his railroad fare was $130. 11. The first few pages contain a brief account of the last commencement, new appointments, and the president's annual report is reprinted entire.

Logical agreement

XLII. Study Rules 117 and 28; and see *Subject, Cause,* and *Reason* in the Glossary. The following sentences are illogical. State briefly in what respect each one is illogical, and rewrite each one, correcting its defects. 1. I jumped off the car in the opposite direction from which it was going. 2. The efforts of the militia were as futile as the police had been. 3. The subject of the first paragraph tells how the mail coaches carried the news of English victories. 4. The topic of the fifth paragraph is where the author told a mother of the death of her son. 5. *Discord* means that sounds are lacking in harmony. 6. Exclusiveness is when a person likes to remain aloof. 7. The outward appearance of an ordinary telephone consists of a box-like structure. 8. *Aërial* means to be moving in the air or flying. 9. The fact that caused this chemical change was due to the hot weather. 10. The topic of the essay deals with the value of a technical education. 11. The cause of the current is

attributed to the continuous winds. 12. The only use to which the farm is now put is for pasturing sheep. 13. His aim in taking a college course is simply for general culture. 14. The reason I dislike the study is on account of the numerous statistics that must be learned. 15. Draughting as practiced nowadays is far different from the old method. 16. The material of drawing pencils is much finer than the ordinary commercial pencils. 17. He was soon promoted to vice president of the company. 18. The style of architecture employed in this church resembles very closely an old cathedral. 19. The sugar beet is rapidly taking the place of cane sugar, and in the past few years has grown to be an extensive business. 20. The greatest fault I have against drill is the trouble of changing clothes. 21. The story tells of the breaking loose of a cannon on board a ship and a description of the weather at the time of the accident. 22. Why I should have an aversion to Saturday classes any more than any other day is due to habit.

Double negative

XLIII. Study Rule 121. The following sentences are incorrect. Correct and rewrite them. 1. I can't find it nowhere. 2. They didn't find no treasure. 3. There isn't no one here who knows. 4. I didn't see no fire; my opinion is that there wasn't no fire.

Incorrect negation with *hardly*, etc.

XLIV. Study Rule 122. The following sentences are incorrect. Correct and rewrite them. 1. It will not take but a minute. 2. I didn't see but two men there. 3. I can't hardly believe it. 4. I did not feel hardly strong enough. 5. She couldn't stay only a week. 6. He said angrily that he wouldn't give only forty cents. 7. You wouldn't scarcely believe the real story. 8. I hadn't scarcely passed by when the stone fell.

Exercises chiefly in Spelling

Doubling final consonants

XLV. Study Rules 149, 150. Write the infinitive, the present participle, and the past participle of each of the following verbs (*e.g.*, *stop*, *stopping*, *stopped*): *rob*, *crib*, *stab*, *bed*, *shed*, *bud*, *beg*, *flog*, *sprig*, *rig*, *hem*, *ram*, *hum*, *plan*, *skin*, *shun*, *pin*, *rip*, *drop*, *stop*, *grip*, *tip*, *equip*, *dip*, *whip*, *slip*, *scar*, *mar*, *debar*, *occur*, *demur*, *prefer*, *refer*, *confer*, *bat*, *pet*, *rot*, *flit*, *quit*, *regret*, *omit*, *commit*, *permit*, *admit*, *repel*, *propel*, *compel*, *expel*, *impel*.

Doubling final consonants

XLVI. Study Rules 149, 150. Write the infinitive and the present participle of each of the following verbs (*e.g.*, *sit*, *sitting*): *bid*, *rid*, *shed*, *dig*, *run*, *begin*, *spin*, *swim*, *win*, *sit*, *set*, *bet*, *get*, *let*, *cut*, *hit*, *put*, *shut*, *split*.

Dropping final *e*

XLVII. Study Rule 151. Write the following words, together with the adjectives ending in *able* derived from them (*e.g.*, *love*, *lovable*): *love*, *excuse*, *believe*, *name*, *tame*, *sale*, *deplore*, *appease*, *use*, *forgive*, *live*, *shake*.

Dropping final *e*

XLVIII. Study Rules 151, 152. Write the infinite and the present participle of each of the following verbs (*e.g.*, *place*, *placing*): *place*, *grace*, *shade*, *recede*, *abide*, *oblige*, *bulge*, *strike*, *bake*, *take*, *come*, *home*, *shine*, *dine*, *arrange*, *slope*, *scrape*, *pore*, *scare*, *please*, *seize*, *lose*, *write*, *bite*, *procrastinate*, *grate*, *hate*, *have*, *strive*, *rove*, *rave*.

Final *e* retained

XLIX. Study Rule 153. Write each of the following words together with its derivative ending in *ous* (*e.g.*, *courage*, *courageous*): *courage*, *advantage*, *outrage*, *umbrage*. Write each of the following words together with its derivative ending in *able* (*e.g.*, *notice*, *noticeable*): *notice*, *peace*, *manage*, *change*.

Change of *y* to *i*: Plurals

L. Study Rule 154. Write the singular and the plural of each of the following nouns (*e.g.*, *lady*, *ladies*): *lady*, *body*, *buggy*, *lily*, *folly*, *dummy*, *ninny*, *company*, *harmony*, *copy*, *berry*, *library*, *century*, *country*, *courtesy*, *city*, *party*, *frivolity*, *valley*, *monkey*, *chimney*, *money*, *pulley*, *volley*, *kidney*, *trolley*, *donkey*, *galley*.

Change of *y* to *i*: Verbs

LI. Study Rule 155. Write the first and third persons, present indicative, and the first person past, of each of the following verbs (*e.g.*, *I cry*, *he cries*, *I cried*): *cry*, *fly*, *fry*, *try*, *apply*, *supply*, *defy*, *deny*, *satisfy*, *classify*, *hurry*, *marry*, *carry*, *tarry*, *bury*.

Change of *ie* to *y*

LII. Study Rule 156. Write the infinitive and the present participle of each of the following verbs (*e.g.*, *lie*, *lying*): *lie*, *die*, *tie*, *vie*.

Plurals in *s* and *es*

LIII. Study Rule 157. Write the singular and the plural of each of the following nouns (*e.g.*, *bead*, *beads*): *bead*, *road*, *leak*, *freak*, *wheel*, *pail*, *beam*, *seam*, *screen*, *steep*, *leap*, *paradox*, *hiss*, *heir*, *fair*, *repair*, *pass*, *glass*, *beet*, *boat*, *boot*, *flash*, *crash*, *cow*, *row*, *crow*, *dish*, *box*.

Present third singulars in *s* and *es*

LIV. Study Rule 158. Write the indicative present first and third persons singular of the following verbs (*e.g.*, *refer*, *refers*): *refer*, *deem*, *claim*, *gleam*, *disdain*, *feel*, *squeal*, *pass*, *rush*, *differ*, *assign*, *toss*, *gash*, *miss*, *fix*, *eat*, *twist*.

Adverbs in *lly*

LV. Write each of the following words, together with its derivative in *ly* (*e.g.*, *final*, *finally*): *final*, *usual*, *actual*, *continual*, *principal*, *practical*, *casual*, *general*, *oral*, *original*, *occasional*, *special*, *partial*.

LVI. Write each of the following words together with its derivative in *ally* (*e.g.*, *accident*, *accidentally*) : *accident*, *incident*, *heroic*, *poetic*, *dramatic*, *prosaic*, *occasion*. "Accidentally," etc.

LVII. Write the following words, observing that in the great majority the ending is *le*, only a few ending in *el*. Observe that in most of the words ending in *el*, the final syllable is preceded by *v*, *m*, or *n*. *Able*, *amble*, *addle*, *axle*, *apple*, *Bible*, *babble*, *bramble*, *buckle*, *battle*, *bubble*, *bridle*, *baffle*, *cable*, *cradle*, *coddle*, *crackle*, *candle*, *castle*, *dandle*, *dazzle*, *dawdle*, *double*, *dwindle*, *eagle*, *feeble*, *fable*, *fondle*, *fickle*, *gable*, *giggle*, *goggle*, *gamble*, *handle*, *huddle*, *ingle*, *icicle*, *juggle*, *jangle*, *jingle*, *ladle*, *marble*, *muddle*, *maple*, *middle*, *noble*, *nibble*, *ogle*, *paddle*, *poodle*, *people*, *quibble*, *riddle*, *rabble*, *rifle*, *ripple*, *stable*, *sable*, *sample*, *staple*, *subtle*, *saddle*, *sprinkle*, *sickle*, *table*, *tackle*, *title*, *topple*, *trestle*, *twinkle*, *wrinkle*, *wrestle*, *whistle*, *mantle* (a garment). *Bevel*, *drivel*, *gavel*, *gravel*, *hovel*, *level*, *navel*, *novel*, *ravel*, *revel*, *dishevel*, *shrivel*, *snivel*, *travel*. *Camel*, *enamel*, *trammel*. *Flannel*, *funnel*, *panel*, *tunnel*. *Babel*, *label*, *libel*. *Angel*, *vessel*, *chisel*, *nickel*, *mantel* (a chimney-piece). The endings *le* and *el*

LVIII. Write the following adjectives, observing that in all, the ending is not *full*, but *ful : useful*, *beautiful*, *careful*, *merciful*, *joyful*, *awful*, *skillful*, *hopeful*, *vengeful*, *mournful*, *cheerful*, *wonderful*, *delightful*. The adjective ending *ful*

LIX. Write the following words, observing that in all, the ending is not *us*, but *ous : humorous*, *courageous*, *plenteous*, *mischievous*, *simultaneous*, *miscellaneous*, *pretentious*, *luminous*, *ridiculous*, *grievous*, *glorious*, *bounteous*, *outrageous*, *hideous*, *heinous*, *troublous*, *garrulous*, *bibulous*. The adjective ending *ous*

LX. Write the following words, observing that in all, the prefix is not *all*, but *al : already*, *altogether*, *almost*, *also*. The adverb prefix *al*

LXI. Study Rule 159. Copy the following: *Receive*, *believe*, etc.

*C*elia	receive	receipt
Cel*i*a	bel*i*eve	bel*i*ef
*C*elia	deceive	deceit
Cel*i*a	rel*i*eve	rel*i*ef
*C*elia	conceive	conceit
*C*elia	perceive	

LXII. Write the following words, observing that in each, the prefix is not *diss*, but *dis : dis-appear*, *dis-appoint*, *dis-grace*, *dis-close*, *dis-gorge*, *dis-honor*, *dis-band*, *dis-locate*, *dis-dain*, *dis-turb*. *Disappear* and *disappoint*

LXIII. Write following words, observing that in each, the prefix is not *prof* but *pro : pro-fessor*, *pro-fession*, *pro-* *Professor*, etc.

fessional, pro-vide, pro-found, pro-voke, pro-tect, pro-bation, pro-nounce, pro-ceed, pro-gress.

Precede, proceed, etc.

LXIV. Write the following words, observing the variations in the spelling of the last syllable:

precede	proceed (*but* procedure)	supersede
recede	exceed	
concede	succeed	
intercede		

Business

LXV. Write the following pairs of words:

happy	happi-ness
rosy	rosi-ness
fluffy	fluffi-ness
crazy	crazi-ness
dizzy	dizzi-ness
lonely	loneli-ness
busy	busi-ness

Lose and *loose*

LXVI. *Lose* is a verb; *loose* is an adjective. Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *lose* or *loose:* 1. The screw is ———. 2. Don't ——— it. 3. If it gets ———, you will ——— it. 4. His coat is ———er than yours, but mine is the ———est of all. 5. By ———ing his ——— change, the ———jointed traveler suffered. 6. Turn him ———; there's no danger of ———ing him.

Lead and *led*

LXVII. The principal parts of *lead* are *lead, led, led.* Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *lead* or *led:* 1. He met me and ——— me in. 2. They will ——— us astray, as our friends were ——— astray. 3. It was this act that ——— to his success. 4. I was ——— to think that this would ——— to misfortune. 5. If she had asked me to ———, I should have ———.

Too, to, and *two*

LXVIII. *Too* is an adverb; it means *excessively* (as "He is too weak") or *also. To* is a preposition. *Two* is a number (=2). Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *too, to,* or *two:* 1. It is ——— weak ——— withstand ——— winters. 2. He thought the ——— men were ——— harsh, and I thought so ———. 3. ———say that, is ——— say a thing with ——— meanings. 4. He was ——— miles from home and was hungry ———. 5. I ———wish———dispute your———statements. 6. ——— take one would be ——— uncharitable; it would be cruel ——— take ———.

Accept and *except*

LXIX. See *Except* in the Glossary. Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *accept* or *except:* 1. I would ——— the offer, ——— for my religious scruples. 2. He is the best pianist in Europe; I do not ——— even

Liszt. 3. Most of the rebels were offered pardon and ———ed it; but the leaders were ———ed from the offer. 4. He burned all the household goods, not ———ing even the heirlooms. 5. Why did you ——— Charles from your invitation? He wouldn't have ———ed anyway.

Affect and *effect*

LXX. See *Affect* in the Glossary. Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *affect* or *effect:* 1. That statement is true, but it does not ——— the case. 2. The failure of the bank did not ——— his equanimity. 3. The admonition of the dean had a good ———. 4. The generals ———ed a junction, but this action had no ——— on the enemy. 5. His brooding ———ed his health. 6. The utmost efforts of his physician could not ——— a cure.

Principal and *principle*

LXXI. Study Rule 160 including the note. Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *principal* or *principle:* 1. The ——— street runs north. 2. The ——— of the school was a man of strong ———s. 3. The ——— involved is what I ———ly object to. 4. It was against his ———s to use more than the interest; the ——— he kept intact. 5. His ——— occupation was to master the ———s of geometry.

Principal and *principle*

LXXII. Study Rule 160 including the note. Write ten sentences using *principal* correctly and ten using *principle* correctly.

Advice, advise, device, devise

LXXIII. Regarding *advice, advise, device, devise,* remember the following formula:

Nouns	*Verbs*
advice	advise
device	devise

Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *advice* or *advise:* 1. I ——— you to buy. 2. He was ———ed not to take the lawyer's ———. 3. A message from his ———er brought important ———es. 4. He ———ed me, and I thought it ———able to follow his ———.

Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *device* or *devise:* 5. It is an ingenious ———, but can't we ——— a better one? 6. Many ———es were employed. 7. He ——— a machine; but merely ———ing was not enough. 8. The ———es and desires of our hearts.

Exercises chiefly in Punctuation

LXXIV. Study Rules 24 and 230. Write the following sentences and groups of sentences correctly punctuated and

The "comma fault," and the confounding of clauses and sentences

capitalized: 1. Well I must go now goodby I'll see you later. 2. She knew nothing of the world her one duty being the care of her father's house while her sister knew nothing of household affairs and cared nothing for the quiet pleasures of the fireside the opera the ballroom and the promenade absorbing all her interest. 3. As soon as we had finished our lunch we jumped down into the pit this was the entrance to the cave we had come to explore stooping a little in order not to strike our heads on the low roof we entered the cave the boys leading the way with their candles. 4. If one says "a black and white dog" one means one dog the coat of which is partly black and partly white while if one says "a black and a white dog" one means two dogs. 5. I suppose I must go if I don't he'll be anxious. 6. A million dollars would yield an income quite sufficient for my needs and a little to spare thus disposing of the great problem of earning a living allowing me also to devote myself to the good of other people. 7. The postman then approached he would surely stop I thought. 8. Since this is the case I intend either to continue my course in engineering or else at the end of this year to drop this course and begin the study of law making a specialty in the latter case of economics and history. 9. It was delightful to have no classes to attend nothing to do but rest and read also to meet my old friends who had come back as I had to spend the vacation at home. 10. This belt runs very slowly and on it the press-man puts the papers they are then carried to the distributing room. 11. At three o'clock the second edition is printed none of this edition is sold in the city. 12. The first papers of the third edition go to the newsdealers these take from fifty to two thousand copies each next the newsboys get their ten or twenty copies each. 13. Should the railroad cut a man's land the man generally has the company agree to build a pass under the track or a roadway over it thus giving the owner easy access to the two fields separated by the track. 14. If that were my good fortune I should surely go next summer to England the country in which my father was born and which I have always longed to visit also to Switzerland for I am certain I should excel in mountain climbing. 15. After they have decided upon the route they send out two parties of surveyors the first party takes surface measurements and drives stakes with the measurements written on them this party also keeps a careful record of all the measurements marked on the stakes. 16. Grout is next thrown in and tamped and leveled this forms the body of the sidewalk.

LXXV. Study Rule 224. Write the following sentences, designating after each one whether the relative clause is restrictive or non-restrictive, and omitting or inserting commas accordingly: 1. He committed a serious error in correcting which he had much trouble. 2. He inquired of the man who had charge of the gate. 3. The old gentleman across the aisle who had been getting more and more nervous now stood up. 4. In my grandfather's day the coach attained a speed of fifteen miles an hour which was the highest speed it ever attained. 5. Some sparks fell among the straw which covered the floor. 6. The days that I spent there were happy ones. 7. Tom Briggs whom I used to know when I was a boy is now a famous engineer. 8. Don't give up the advantages that you have gained. 9. The man who won the race is a junior. 10. The Brooklyn bridge which spans the East River has lately been repaired. 11. Here they found a number of brass cannon which they destroyed. 12. The book which we are reading has more in it than the Ethiopian's book. 13. The Bible which is a collection of books written at different times contains a wide range of literature. 14. Philip spoke of the historical background of the chapter which the man was reading. 15. The Nicene creed is a statement that was drawn up by the Council of Nicæa. 16. The locomotive that was used in 1840 looks ridiculously old-fashioned to-day. 17. There is no scientific theory which is not open to revision. 18. Not much is expected of those who have recently been initiated.

Restrictive and non-restrictive clauses

LXXVI. Study Rule 231 *b*. Write the following sentences, properly punctuated: 1. These screws control the reticule, hence they are called reticule screws. 2. I objected to the plan, however since he was bent on it I yielded. 3. A hot fire is necessary, therefore a strong draft must be provided. 4. The wood had been injured by warping moreover the metal parts were badly rusted. 5. Sickness delayed their moving, therefore we did not get the house so soon as we had planned. 6. What you say is true, nevertheless the thing is impossible. 7. The meerschaum becomes finally saturated with nicotine, then there is less danger of its breaking. 8. All the cracks were filled with tow, thus the craft was made seaworthy.

Sentences or clauses introduced by *so*, *therefore*, etc.

LXXVII. Study Rules 221–237. Write the following sentences, punctuating them correctly. After each mark of punctuation, write within brackets the number of the rule in accordance with which the mark is used. 1. On the south side for about fifty feet in it is divided into two stories.

General exercise in punctuation

2. It will never rank high as an intercollegiate game for the students find greater enjoyment in a contest between teams. 3. First of all let me say do not come here unless you have plenty of money for expenses are high. 4. I advise you however to investigate for yourself. 5. Ruling-pens like any other sharp instrument become dull with use. 6. When the instruments are laid away especially if they are not to be used for some time the compasses should be left open for otherwise they will lose their spring. 7. The better the health of the men is the more they can accomplish. 8. The benefit does not lie only in the development of individual students but it lies also in the good done to the college as a whole. 9. The report will spread to remote villages and people in the backwoods will be induced to seek the college. 10. The yard is bordered on the west side by a row of pine trees and other trees and shrubs are planted about the lawn. 11. Along the east side are a number of plum trees and several flower beds dot the lawn near by. 12. This statement was made to Mr. A. E. Storey chairman of the committee. 13. If our laws are not what they should be it is time they were amended. 14. While we were eating a child the son of one of the natives approached. 15. Some were armed with bolos but an order was given that no one should fire. 16. After the ship is in the upper gate of the lock is closed. 17. Bishop of Beauvais thy victim died in fire. 18. I slept very late slept in fact until noon. 19. The back of the table its square corners its size its heaviness these are features I did not perceive. 20. At the *séance* the following incident occurred a gauze robed figure gliding as it seemed from behind a screen said she was the spirit of my sister and fell on my neck. 21. This phenomenon has received a recognized name among alienists namely *aphasia*. 22. The great difference in fact between the two kinds of thinking is this that empirical thinking is reproductive but reasoning is productive. 23. It shone by its own light a strange thing to see. 24. We think that the premises of both controversialists were unsound that on these premises Addison reasoned well and Steele ill and that consequently Addison brought out a false conclusion while Steele blundered upon the truth. 25. It was due to the great satirist who alone knew how to use ridicule without abusing it who without inflicting a wound effected a great social reform who reconciled wit and virtue after a long and disastrous separation during which wit had been led astray by profligacy and virtue by fanaticism. 26. The pamphlet contains seventy-two pages and much information concerning the work of the past year is furnished within this space much more than was given to

the public in the smaller publications of 1901, 1902 and 1903. 27. The state's attorney who has been indefatigable in the effort to obtain evidence against Magill the detective on the case and the special grand jurymen are all puzzled.

Capitals

LXXVIII. Study Rule 278. Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *English*, *French*, *German*, *Latin*, *Greek*, *Dutch*, *Indian*, or *Spanish:* 1. In the battle the ——— captain met a ——— corporal. 2. Some ——— and ——— books entertained him, while he drank ——— wine and smoked a ——— pipe. 3. The ——— ships were destroyed by the ———, assisted by their ——— allies.

Study Rule 275. Write a composition about a calendar, using the names of all the days of the week, all the months, and the four seasons.

General exercise in spelling, punctuating, capitalizing, italicizing, and paragraphing

LXXIX. Write the following passage, correctly punctuating, capitalizing, and paragraphing it: The principal peculiarity of professor collins was absent-mindedness this often led him to mislay or lose articles necessary to his business such as books lecture notes etc one day as he and another professor were walking down a street in the village in which the college was situated professor collins suddenly stopped looked perplexed and said why my notes for to-day's lecture have disappeared oh that's all right said his friend smiling give an impromptu lecture the subject is too complicated for that answered professor collins truly this is serious if I don't find those notes soon I must disappoint my class of forty law students what is that in your hand asked his friend a package I intended to mail at that last post-box was the answer it contains some copies of the law review my notes were in a separate envelope of about the same size wait for me a minute said the other professor with a knowing look he went to the post-box which they had passed a minute before and took from the top of it a large envelope this he brought to professor collins saying don't lose these necessary things again professor collins delighted at being relieved from the anxiety which he had been suffering seized the package and said gratefully as Longfellow puts it thanks thanks to thee my worthy friend oh never fear I'll not lose them again at least not to-day.

APPENDIX B

A Grammatical Vocabulary explaining Grammatical and Other Technical Terms used in this Book

Absolute. A substantive with a modifier (usually a participle) attached to a predication but having no syntactic relation to any noun or verb in the predication is called an **absolute substantive.** An absolute substantive and its modifier are together called an **absolute phrase.** The italicized part of the following sentence is an absolute phrase: "*The wind being favorable*, they embarked." For other examples see Rules 132 *a* and 132 *b*.

Active voice. See **Voice.**

Adjective. A word used to modify or limit the meaning of a substantive; *e.g.*, *black*, *human*, *old*, *beautiful*, *metallic*, *dry*.

Adjective clause. A clause used to modify a substantive in the manner of an adjective; *e.g.*, "The rain *that fell yesterday* was a blessing" (the italicized clause modifies the noun "rain"); "The house *where he used to live* is vacant" (the italicized clause modifies the noun "house"); "There was once a city *on the outskirts of which lay a pestilential morass*" (the italicized clause modifies the noun "city"). Adjective clauses are often called **relative clauses.**

Adjunct. Modifiers and predicate substantives or predicate adjectives have the general name of adjuncts. A modifier is said to be an adjunct of the sentence-member it modifies; a predicate substantive or adjective is said to be an adjunct of the verb it completes.

Adverb. A word used to modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs; *e.g.*, *slowly*, *politely*, *accurately*, *very*, *too*, *then*, *up*, *down*, *out*.

Adverbial clause. A clause used to modify an adjective, an adverb, or a verb; *e.g.*, "He is greater *than his father was*" (the italicized clause modifies the adjective "greater"); "He walked faster *than I did*" (the italicized clause modifies the adverb "faster"); "I will come if my salary is paid when it is due" (the clause "if . . . paid" modifies the verb "will come"; the clause "when . . . due" modifies the verb "is paid").

Adverbial substantive. A substantive used to limit adverbially an adjective, an adverb, or a verb; *e.g.*, "It is worth *ten cents*" ("ten cents" limits the adjective "worth"); "He walked *two miles* farther" ("two miles" limits the adverb "farther"); "He walked *two miles* ("two miles" limits "walked" adverbially).

Antecedent. The word, as used in this book, means the substantive to which any pronoun refers. In the sentence "He who runs may read," "he" is the antecedent of "who." In the sentence "He picked up a stone and threw it," "stone" is the antecedent of "it."

Anticlimax. See **Climax.**

Appositive. A substantive attached to another substantive and denoting the same person or thing by a different name is called an appositive, or is said to be **in apposition** with the substantive modified. In the sentence "Edward the king is enjoying his favorite sport,—yachting," "king" is in apposition with "Edward," and "yachting" is in apposition with "sport."

Article. The word *the* is called the **definite article**; the word *a* or *an* is called the **indefinite article.**

Auxiliary. The verbs *be*, *have*, *do*, *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, *must*, and *ought*, with their inflectional forms (*e.g.*, *was*, *am*, *did*, *should*, *might*, *could*, etc.) when they assist in forming the voices, modes, and tenses of other verbs, are called auxiliaries. The italicized words following are auxiliaries: "*Have* you gone?" "I *did* not see," "He *has* not *been* heard," "I *should be* grieved if it *was* broken."

Cardinal number. The words *one*, *two*, *three*, and the corresponding words for other numbers are cardinal numbers; the words *first*, *second*, *third*, etc., are **ordinal numbers.**

Case. The different forms that a substantive takes when it stands in different syntactic relations are called cases. The form or pair of forms (singular and plural) that a substantive takes when it is the subject of a finite verb is called the **nominative case**; the form or pair of forms that it takes when it modifies another substantive by indicating a possessor is called the **possessive case**; the form or pair of forms that it takes when it is the object of a verb or a preposition is called the **objective case.** The three cases of typical nouns and of the principal pronouns that are inflected are shown in the tables of declension under **Substantive.** It will be observed that in the nouns the nominative and objective cases are identical, but that in the pronouns they are (with the exception of the nominative and objective singular of *it*) distinct.

Causal conjunction. A conjunction that introduces a statement of cause or reason; *e.g.*, *for* (coördinating); *because* and *since* (subordinating).

Clause. A group of words composed of a subject and a predicate and combined with another group of words likewise composed. In the sentence (*a*) "When I awake, I am still with thee," the two groups of words separated by the comma are clauses. A clause that plays the part of a constituent element (a subject, a predicate substantive, a modifier, etc.) in the clause with which it is combined is a **dependent** or **subordinate clause** (see **Substantive clause**, **Adjective clause** and **Adverbial clause**). A clause that does not form a constituent part of another, but makes an independent assertion, is a **principal clause.** The italicized groups of words in the following sentences are principal clauses: (*b*) "If the rope breaks, *he is lost.*" (*c*) "*The bell sounded*, and *every one rose.*" A principal clause on which a subordinate clause depends is called a **governing clause**; *e.g.*, the principal clause in sentence *b*, above. Clauses that play the same part in a sentence, whether they are alike principal or alike dependent, are called **coördinate clauses.** See, *e.g.*, the two principal clauses in sentence *c*, above; and the two dependent clauses in the following sentence: (*d*) "*Though I am tired*, and *though my shoes pinch*, I am going on."

Climax. A series of assertions or coördinate sentence-elements so arranged that each one is stronger or more impressive than the preceding one. See, *e.g.*, the sentences marked *Improved* under Rule 89. A series of assertions or sentence-elements decreasing in strength or impressiveness is an **anticlimax.** See, *e.g.*, the sentences marked *Weak* under Rule 89.

Common noun. A noun used to designate any member of a class; *e.g.*, *man*, *ruler*, *country*, *city*, *street*, *building.* A noun used to distinguish an individual member of a class from other members is a **proper noun**; *e.g.*, *John*, *Anderson*, *Cæsar*, *Germany*, *Boston*, *Broadway*, *Acropolis.* A **proper name** is an appellation of any kind (including proper nouns) used to distinguish an individual person or thing; *e.g.*, *Henry the Second* (or *Henry II.*), *Revolutionary War*, *First National Bank*, *Democratic Party*, *Second Presbyterian Church*, *Domesday Book*, *Forty-first Street*, *Ohio River*, *Niagara Falls*, *Edgar County*, *Calegonian Literary Society*, *Sumner High School*, *Columbia College*, *Morningside Park.*

Comparative. See **Comparison.**

Comparison. When an adjective or an adverb is in the inflectional form that simply designates a quality or manner without indicating the degree in which that quality or manner is present, it

is said to be in the **positive degree**; this form is, with a few exceptions, the shortest form the word can have, — *e.g.*, *sweet, strong, fast, hard.* An adjective or an adverb is said to be in the **comparative degree** (1) when it is in the form which indicates that the quality or manner is present in a greater measure relatively to some standard (*i.e.*, with a few exceptions, the form ending in *er*; as *sweeter, stronger, faster, harder*), or (2) when its positive form is combined with *more* (*e.g.*, *more sweet, more strong, more rapidly, more laboriously*). An adjective or an adverb is in the **superlative degree** (1) when it is in the inflectional form ending in *st* (*e.g.*, *sweetest, strongest, most, best*), or (2) when its positive form is combined with *most* (*e.g.*, *most sweet, most rapidly*). The formation of the three degrees of an adjective or an adverb is called **comparison.**

Complex sentence. A sentence that contains a dependent clause. See, *e.g.*, sentences *a*, *b*, and *d* under **Clause.**

Compound sentence. Two or more principal clauses connected by coördinating conjunctions; or two or more principal clauses not connected by conjunctions, but written with such punctuation and capitalization, or spoken with such slight pauses between them, as will indicate that they are combined. See, *e.g.*, sentence *c* under **Clause**, and the following sentences: (*a*) "I came, I saw, I conquered." (*b*) "Must I obey you? must I crouch before you?"

Conditional. See **Mode.**

Conjunction. A word used to connect one word with another or one group with another; *e.g.*, *and, if, for.* Conjunctions may be distinguished from prepositions (*q.v.*) by the following fact: Any conjunction can be used to connect one predication with another (*e.g.*, "*I opened the door* when *he rapped*"), — an office which a preposition cannot perform; one of the two elements connected by a preposition must always be a substantive (*e.g.*, "*He fell* into *the cold water*"). — **Coördinating conjunctions** are those which, when they join two predications, make those predications of equal rank, — neither dependent on the other; *e.g.*, "*I called* and *they came.*" The principal coördinating conjunctions are the **simple conjunctions**, *and, but, or, nor, neither*, and *for*; the correlative conjunctions, *both . . . and, either . . . or, neither . . . nor*; and the **conjunctive adverbs**, *so, also, therefore, hence, however, nevertheless, moreover, accordingly, besides, thus, then, still*, and *yet.* — **Subordinating conjunctions** are those which, when they join two predications make one of those predications subordinate to the other; *e.g.*, "*They came* when *I called.*" The principal subordinating conjunctions are *if, though, whether, lest, unless, than, as, that, because, since, when, while, after, whereas, provided.*

Conjunctive adverbs. Words that are used sometimes as adverbs and sometimes as conjunctives. See **Conjunction.**

Consonant. See **Vowel.**

Construction. The grammatical office performed by any word in a given sentence is called the construction of that word. For example, in the sentence "He walks fast," the construction of "he" is that of subject of "walks"; the construction of "walks" is that of predicate of "he"; the construction of "fast" is that of adverbial modifier of "walks."

Coördinate. Sentence-elements that are in the same construction within a sentence are coördinate. In the sentence "He and she talked long and earnestly and at last agreed," "he" and "she," "talked" and "agreed," "long" and "earnestly" are coördinate.

Coördinate clause. See **Clause.**

Coördinating conjunction. See **Conjunction.**

Copula. The verb *to be*, or any of its forms.

Correlative conjunctions. Conjunctions that are used in pairs; *e.g.*, *both . . . and*, *either . . . or*, *neither . . . nor*, *whether . . . or.*

Declension. See **Inflection.**

Demonstrative adjectives. The words *this* and *these*, *that* and *those*, when they are used as adjectives; *e.g.*, "this man." "those men."

Demonstrative pronouns. The words *this* and *these*, *that* and *those* when they are used as substantives; *e.g.*, "That is not true," "What is this?"

Dependent clause. See **Clause.**

Direct address. Discourse in the second person (see **Person**); *e.g.*, "Sir, I salute you." The expression **a substantive used in direct address** means a substantive that indicates to whom the discourse is addressed; *e.g.*, "Sir" in the foregoing example.

Direct question. See **Direct quotation.**

Direct quotation (often called direct discourse). Quotation of discourse exactly as it was spoken or written; *e.g.*, *He said "I will help."* Statement of the substance of quoted discourse without the use of the exact words is **indirect quotation** (or indirect discourse); *e.g.*, *He said that he would help.* A question indirectly quoted is called an **indirect question**; *e.g.*, *He asked whether I would help.* A question directly quoted, or not quoted but directly asked, is a **direct question**; *e.g.*, *Will you help?*

Factitive adjective. An adjective, when it denotes a quality or state produced by the action of a verb, is called a factitive adjective; *e.g.*, "It will make you *strong*."

Figure of speech. Certain devices of expression that may be used for making discourse interesting, effective, or beautiful are called figures of speech; others are not included under this term. Which of them are included cannot be stated briefly, for the application of the term is arbitrary, being based simply on custom and not on any common peculiarity of the devices included. Of the devices mentioned in this book, the following are figures of speech: simile, metaphor, climax, irony (see these words in this vocabulary), and the use of the historical present (technically called vision).

Finite. See **Mode.**

Future tense. See **Tense.**

Future-perfect tense. See **Tense.**

Gerund. A verb-form ending in *ing* is called a gerund when it is used as a noun. When such a form is used as an adjective, it is called a **participle.** In the sentence, "Coming close, he whispered," "coming" is used as an adjective modifying "he" and is therefore a participle. In the sentence "His coming was expected," "coming" is used as a noun, the subject of "was expected," and is therefore a gerund. A gerund may fulfill the principal offices of a noun. It may be the subject of a verb (*e.g.*, "Fishing is tiresome"); the object of a verb (*e.g.*, "I hate fishing"); the object of a preposition (*e.g.*, "I have an aversion to fishing"); a predicate noun (*e.g.*, "What I most detest is fishing"); an appositive (*e.g.*, "That detestable amusement, fishing, I cannot endure"); or an absolute noun (*e.g.*, "Fishing being my aversion, let us not fish").

Gerund phrase. See **Phrase.**

Govern. The relation between a verb and its object may be stated either by saying that the substantive is the object of the verb, or by saying that the verb governs the substantive. Likewise the relation between a preposition and its object may be stated by saying that the preposition governs the substantive. A clause, whether principal or subordinate, on which another clause depends, is said to govern the latter clause. In the sentence "She wept when she saw the injury that had been done," the clause "she wept" governs the clause "when she saw the injury," and the latter clause governs the clause "that had been done."

Grammar. The science that deals with (1) the classification of words with reference to the functions they perform in discourse (see

Parts of speech); (2) the inflection of words (see **Inflection**); and (3) the relations that words bear to one another in discourse (see **Syntax**). Grammar is distinguished from **rhetoric** by the following fact: The statements comprising the science of grammar tell us how words *may* be inflected, used singly, and combined. The statements comprising the science of rhetoric tell us how words *should* be used and combined in order to make discourse clear and effective.

Indefinite pronoun. The words *each*, *either*, *neither*, *some*, *any*, *many*, *few*, *all*, *both*, *one*, *none*, *aught*, *naught*, *somebody*, *something*, *somewhat*, *anybody*, *anything*, *everybody*, *everything*, *nobody*, and *nothing*, when they are used as substantives, are called indefinite pronouns.

Indicative. The set of inflectional forms and of combinations with auxiliary verbs that a speaker uses when he conceives the action of a verb as a fact, is not the same as the set he uses when he conceives the action as doubtful. Compare, for example, the sentences "He *is* a coward" and "If he *be* a coward, he should be dismissed." The former set is called the **indicative mode** of a verb; the latter the **subjunctive mode.** The indicative and subjunctive forms of a typical verb are shown on pages 213 ff.

Indirect question. See **Direct quotation.**

Indirect quotation. See **Direct quotation.**

Infinitive. That inflectional form of a verb which may be combined with *to* (as in the sentences "To err is human," "I wish to go," "He refused to move," "It is impossible to see") is called an infinitive when it is used in one of the following ways: (1) in combination with *to*, as illustrated above; (2) in combination with an auxiliary verb (*e.g.*, "I will go," "I can see"); (3) as the predicate of a substantive, the whole predication being the object of another verb (*e.g.*, "It made me gasp," "I saw him smile"); (4) in one of the constructions of a substantive (*e.g.*, "Do you dare go in?" in which "go" is the object of "dare"). The word *to*, when it is combined with an infinitive is not a preposition; it is merely a sort of prefix, serving no grammatical purpose except to show that the verb-form following is an infinitive. For this reason it is called the **sign of the infinitive** or the **infinitive-sign.** The infinitive-sign is not a necessary part of the infinitive. In the sentences "I cannot see," "I dare go," "Will you come?" "I heard the clock strike," "You had better speak," the words "see," "go," "come," "strike," and "speak" are infinitives, though the infinitive-sign does not accompany them. In mentioning an infinitive, the infinitive-sign may with equal correctness be put before the infinitive or be omitted; thus we may say either "The verbs *to stand* and *to sit* are intransi-

tive," or "The verbs *stand* and *sit* are intransitive."—The use of infinitives in various substantive constructions is an important matter for the student to understand. An infinitive may be used (1) as the subject of a verb (*e.g.*, "To read history is instructive"); (2) as the object of a verb (*e.g.*, "I like to read history"); (3) as a predicate noun (*e.g.*, "An instructive occupation is to read history"); (4) as an appositive (*e.g.*, "It is instructive to read history"); (5) as an absolute noun (*e.g.*, "To read history being so instructive, let us read it"); (6) as an adverbial noun (*e.g.*, "History is instructive to read").

Infinitive-sign. See **Infinitive.**

Inflection. Change in the form of a word to show variation of meaning (as with inflections of number, comparison, and tense), or to show the relation of a word to another word (as with the inflections of case and person). The inflection of substantives is called **declension,** that of adjectives and adverbs **comparison** (*q.v.*), and that of verbs **conjugation.** The various forms that a word receives in inflection are its **inflectional forms**; *e.g.*, *love*, *lovest*, *loveth*, *loved*, *lovedst*, and *loving* are the inflectional forms of the verb *to love; man*, *man's*, *men*, *men's*, are the inflectional forms of the noun *man;* see also the tables under **Substantive** and opposite **Verb.**

Intensive. The pronouns *myself*, *thyself*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, *ourselves*, *yourselves*, *yourself*, *themselves*, and *oneself*, when they are used in apposition, are called intensives (*e.g.*, "I myself will do it," "He saw the bishop himself"). When they are used as the object of a verb and designate the same person or thing as the subject of that verb, they are called **reflexives** (*e.g.*, "I hurt myself," "They benefit themselves").

Interjection. A word that expresses emotion and that has no syntactic relations with other words; *e.g.*, *oh*, *alas*, *ha*, *ah*, *hello*, *hurrah*, *huzza.*

Interrogative pronoun. The words *who*, *what*, *which*, and *whether* (archaic), when they are used as substantives and in an interrogative sense (*e.g.*, "Who are you?" "What do you want?" "Which do you choose?" "Whether of the twain is justified?"), are called interrogative pronouns. *What* and *which*, when they are used as adjectives and in an interrogative sense (*e.g.*, "What song did you sing?" "Which book do you choose?"), are called **interrogative adjectives.**

Intransitive. See **Transitive.**

Irony. The suggestion of a thought or fact by an expression which, if taken literally, would convey the opposite of what is meant. "You are very kind," spoken in a certain tone to a bully who

has been abusing the speaker, is irony. In the expression "arsenic, corrosive sublimate, prussic acid, and other *mild* and *harmless* drugs" the italicized words are ironical. — **Sarcasm**, as applied to discourse, is contemptuous, taunting, or intentionally irritating discourse. Sarcasm may or may not be ironical, and irony may or may not be sarcastic.

Limit. The object of a verb is said to limit the verb; the object of a preposition is said to limit the preposition; and any modifier is said to limit the element it modifies.

Metaphor. The denoting of a person or thing or the stating of a thought or fact by the use of an expression which, if taken literally, would designate not what is meant but something resembling it, is called metaphor, or is said to be metaphorical; *e.g.*, (*a*) "These words cut me to the heart." A single word or expression used metaphorically is said to be a metaphor; *e.g.*, the word *cut* in example *a* and the italicized words in the following sentences are metaphors: (*b*) "He *poured* out a *flood* of eloquence." (*c*) "That is a *knotty* problem." — An explicit statement that a person or thing or fact is like another is a **simile**; *e.g.*, (*d*) "The enemy are fleeing like frightened rabbits." — Metaphor and simile both show resemblance, — metaphor by suggestion or implication, simile by explicit statement (usually by the use of *like*, *as*, *seem*, or some other such word). For this reason any metaphor may be changed to a simile, and *vice versa*. The metaphors in *a*, *b*, and *c*, above, may be changed to similes thus: (*a*) "On hearing these words, I felt as if I had been cut to the heart." (*b*) "Eloquence seemed to pour like a flood from his lips." (*c*) "It is as difficult to deal with that problem as it is to saw a knotty log." And the simile in example *d* may be changed to a metaphor thus: (*d*) "The enemy are fleeing — the frightened rabbits!"

Mode. A mode of a verb is that set of inflectional forms and verb-phrases which a speaker uses to represent the action of the verb in a certain mode (*i.e.*, manner). The set which he uses to represent the action as a fact is the **indicative mode**; that which he uses to represent the action as doubtful, the **subjunctive mode**; that which he uses to represent the action as conditioned on something, the **conditional mode**; that which he uses to represent the action as permitted or possible, the **potential mode**; that which he uses to represent the action as obligatory, the **obligative mode**; that which he uses in giving a command, the **imperative mode**; that which he uses when he employs the verb as a substantive, the **infinitive mode** (the forms constituting this mode are called some **infinitives** and others **gerunds**); that which he uses when he employs the verb as an adjective, the **participial mode** (the forms constituting this mode are called **participles**). The indicative, subjunctive, conditional, potential, obligative, and impera-

tive modes are called **finite modes**; the others, **non-finite modes.** (See also **Indicative, Infinitive, Gerund,** and **Participle.**) The different modes of a typical verb are shown on pages 213 ff.[1]

Modifier. See **Modify.**

Modify. A word which, by being combined in discourse with another word or expression, is made to mean something different from what it would mean if it stood alone, is said to be modified by that other word or expression. Thus, the meaning of the sentence "I dislike oranges" is changed if we insert *sour*, so that the sentence reads "I dislike sour oranges"; it is changed because "sour oranges" means something different from "oranges"; "sour" is therefore said to modify (*i.e.*, change) "oranges." Likewise "many men" and "few men" mean something different from "men"; "many" and "few" modify "men." "Call softly" means something different from "call"; "softly" modifies "call." "I hate women who use slang" means something different from "I hate women"; "who use slang" modifies "women." A word or expression which thus changes the meaning of another word is called a **modifier.** — The modifiers of substantives are adjectives (including participles), adjective phrases, adjective clauses, appositives, and substantives in the possessive case. The modifiers of adjectives, verbs, and adverbs are adverbs, adverb-phrases, adverbial clauses, and adverbial substantives. Vocatives and absolute phrases may be considered modifiers of predications.

Monosyllabic. See **Monosyllable.**

Monosyllable. A word of one syllable (*e.g.*, *word*, *one*, *stop*, *strength*) is said to be a monosyllable, or to be monosyllabic.

Nominative. See **Case.**

Noun. See **Substantive.**

Number. When a substantive is in an inflectional form which shows that one person or thing is designated (*e.g.*, *boy*, *boy's*), it is said to be in the **singular number**; when in an inflectional form which shows that more than one person or thing are designated (*e.g.*, *boys*, *boys'*) it is said to be in the **plural number.** The forms constituting the singular and plural numbers of typical nouns and of the principal inflected pronouns are shown in the ta-

[1] The classification of certain verb-phrases as the conditional mode, the potential mode, and the obligative mode has been adopted here and in the paradigm on pp. 213 ff., upon considerations which seem to me to outweigh the objections that may properly be made on philological grounds. These considerations are stated in Whitney's *Essentials of English Grammar*, pp. 120 ff., particularly 126; and MacEwan's *The Essentials of the English Sentence*, p. 53.

bles under **Substantive**. When a verb is in an inflectional form properly used with a singular subject (*e.g.*, *am*, *was*, *takes*, *goest*), the verb is said to be in the singular number; when in a form properly used with a plural subject (*e.g.*, *are*, *were*, *take*, *go*), it is said to be in the plural number. (See pages 213 ff.)

Object. A substantive used in connection with a verb and designating the person or thing upon whom or which the action of the verb is represented as taking effect is called the object of the verb. In the following sentences the italicized words are the objects of the respective verbs: "I built a *house*," "I wrote a *letter*," "*Whom* do you wish?" A substantive that designates the person or thing directly affected by the action of a verb (as the objects in the foregoing examples do) is called a **direct object**; one that designates the person or thing indirectly affected is called an **indirect object**; *e.g.*, the italicized words in the sentences following: "I built my *wife* a house," "I wrote *him* a letter." — Regarding the object of a preposition, see **Preposition**.

Objective. See **Case**.

Part of speech. A part of speech is a body of words all of which perform the same function in discourse. The parts of speech generally recognized by grammarians, as the classes into which all words in the English language are divided, are eight in number; *viz.*, nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections.

Participle. The word *participle* as ordinarily used means a verb-form like *moving* or *moved*, when that form is used with the value of an adjective, as in "We are moving today," "The piano has been moved." For further information, see **Gerund**, **Mode**, and **Verb**.

Passive. See **Voice**.

Past tense. See **Tense**.

Past-perfect. See **Tense**.

Perfect. See **Tense**.

Person. The words *I* (with its inflectional forms, — *me*, *we*, etc.; see the tables under **Substantive**), *myself*, *ourselves*, and the relative *who*, when its antecedent is one of the foregoing words, are called **pronouns of the first person**. The words *thou* (with its inflectional forms, — *thee*, *you*, etc.; see **Substantive**), *thyself*, *yourself*, *yourselves*, and the relative *who*, when its antecedent is one of the foregoing words, are called **pronouns of the second person**. The relative *who*, when used otherwise than as above mentioned, all other pronouns than those above mentioned, and all nouns, are

said to belong to the **third person.** — A verb-form or verb-phrase that may correctly be used with a subject in the first person is said to belong to the **first person of the verb** (*e.g.*, *am*, *are bound*); one that may correctly be used with a subject in the second person is said to belong to the **second person of the verb** (*e.g.*, *art*, *hast gone*); one that may correctly be used with a subject in the third person is said to belong to the **third person of the verb** (*e.g.*, *is*, *does*, *has gone*). (See pages 213 ff.) — Discourse is said to be **in the first person** when the speaker designates himself by pronouns of the first person (*e.g.*, the Twenty-third Psalm); **in the second person** when the speaker addresses some person or thing, using pronouns of the second person (*e.g.*, the Lord's Prayer); **in the third person** when neither pronouns of the first person nor pronouns of the second person are used (*e.g.*, the first two letters on page 136).

Personal pronouns. The words *I*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, and *it*, together with their inflectional forms (see the tables under **Substantive**) are called personal pronouns.

Phrase. The term *phrase* is often used to mean any short group of words; as "the slang phrase 'That's hard lines.'" But as the term is used in grammar, a phrase is a group of words not constituting or containing a predication. A **verb-phrase** is a combination of a principal verb and one or more auxiliaries that is analogous to a single inflectional form (*e.g.*, *has gone*, *shall have done*). A **preposition-phrase** is a combination of words analogous to a single preposition (*e.g.*, *in regard to*, *as for*). An **adjective-phrase** is a phrase used to modify a substantive (*e.g.*, "A machine *of great value*"). An **adverb-phrase** is a phrase used analogously to an adverb (*e.g.*, "He fell *into the water*"). Any phrase consisting of a preposition and its object is a **prepositional phrase** (a term not to be confused with *preposition-phrase*); *e.g.*, the adjective and adverb phrases above quoted are prepositional phrases. A **participial phrase** is a phrase consisting of a participle and its adjuncts (*e.g.*, "*Looking to the north*, I saw the lake"). A **gerund-phrase** is a prepositional phrase in which the preposition governs a gerund (*e.g.*, *in talking*, *instead of shooting*). Concerning **absolute phrases**, see **Absolute**.

Plural. See **Number**.

Possessive adjective. The words *my*, *mine*, *our*, *ours*, *thy*, *thine*, *your*, *yours*, *his*, *her*, *hers*, *its*, *their*, *theirs*, and *whose* are called possessive adjectives, or possessives, as well as inflectional forms of the personal pronouns.

Possessive case. See **Case**.

Predicate. See **Subject**.

Predicate adjective. See **Predicate substantive.**

Predicate complement. See **Predicate substantive.**

Predicate substantive. A substantive designating what a verb asserts a person or thing to be, is a predicate substantive (*e.g.*, "He is a *carpenter*," "These are *strawberries*"). An adjective designating a quality which a verb asserts belongs to a person or thing is a **predicate adjective** (*e.g.*, "He is *skillful*," "These berries are *sweet*"). A predicate substantive, or a predicate adjective, or a phrase or clause used as the one or the other, is said to be the **predicate complement** of the verb it completes.

Predication. Any group of words consisting of a single subject and predicate, whether a simple sentence or a clause.

Preposition. A word used to show the relation of a substantive to another word; *e.g.*, *in*, *on*, *into*, *toward*, *from*, *for*, *against*, *of*, *between*, *with*, *without*, *within*, *before*, *behind*, *under*, *over*, *above*, *among*, *at*, *by*, *around*, *about*, *through*, *throughout*, *beyond*, *across*, *along*, *beside*. A preposition always requires to complete its meaning a substantive, with which it combines into what is felt to be a unit of expression; *e.g.*, "in the water," "into the house," "among the leaves," "behind the house." This fact distinguishes prepositions from adverbs, which do not require a substantive to complete them; *e.g.*, "Go out," "Come in," "Please walk before." (*In*, *before*, *on*, *for*, *but*, *across*, and many other English words belong each one to several parts of speech; there is a preposition *across* and an adverb *across*, a preposition *for* and a conjunction *for*, etc.) For the distinction between prepositions and conjunctions, see **Conjunction.** The substantive combined with a preposition in the manner illustrated above is called the **object of the preposition.**

Preposition-phrase. See **Phrase.**

Prepositional phrase. See **Phrase.**

Present. See **Tense.**

Principal clause. See **Clause.**

Principal parts. The principal parts of any verb are (1) the present infinitive, (2) the past first singular, and (3) the past participle (see **Verb**); *e.g.*, *flee*, *fled*, *fled*; *choose*, *chose*, *chosen*; *love*, *loved*, *loved*; *set*, *set*, *set*.

Principal verb. A verb not used as an auxiliary, including the auxiliaries themselves when they are used independently (*e.g.*, "I *have* a boat," "He *did* wonders").

Pronoun. See **Substantive.**

Proper name. See **Common noun.**

Proper noun. See **Common noun.**

Relative adjectives. See **Relative pronoun.**

Relative clause. See **Adjective clause.**

Relative pronoun. The words *that*, *who*, *what*, *which*, *whoever*, *whatever*, and *whichever*, when they are used as substantives and in such a way that the clauses in which they stand are made adjective clauses (*q.v.*), are called **relative pronouns.** The words *what*, *which*, *whatever*, and *whichever*, when they are used as adjectives and in such a way that the clauses in which they stand are made adjective clauses, are called **relative adjectives.**

Rhetoric. See **Grammar.**

Sentence. The word *sentence* means (1) a group of words composed of a subject (with or without adjuncts) and a predicate (with or without adjuncts) and not grammatically dependent on any words outside itself (*e.g.*, "I will go," "I, being the person best acquainted with the situation, will go as soon as the carriage which I ordered has come"); or (2) two or more such groups joined by coördinating conjunctions or presented in such a way as to show that they are to be taken as a unit. A sentence of type 2 is called a **compound sentence.** Sentences of type 1 are divided into two classes, — **simple sentences** and **complex sentences.** All sentences are therefore usually said to fall into three classes, simple, complex, and compound. These are described in this vocabulary under their several names.

Sentence-element. A subject, a predicate, a predicate substantive or adjective, an absolute phrase, a modifier, a clause, or any other unit of sentence-structure. Any sentence-element other than a principal clause falls under the term **subordinate sentence-element**, as used in this book.

Sign of the infinitive. See **Infinitive.**

Simile. See **Metaphor.**

Simple conjunction. See **Conjunction.**

Simple sentence. A sentence composed of only one subject and predicate and not containing a dependent clause; *e.g.*, "He seized the hammer," "Taking off his coat and rolling up his sleeves, he seized the heavy sledge-hammer in his strong hands, swung it high above his head, and brought it down with irresistible force, shattering to pieces the priceless cabinet, the heirloom handed down through five generations."

Singular. See **Number.**

Subject. A substantive combined in discourse with a verb (except a gerund or a participle) and representing the person or thing regarding which the verb asserts something is called the **subject** of the verb; and the verb, in turn, is called the **predicate** of the substantive, or is said to be **predicated** of the substantive. Thus, in the expression "He goes," "he" is the subject of "goes," and "goes" is the predicate of "he." The words *subject* and *predicate* are often (in this book and elsewhere) used to designate respectively a subject and a predicate, as above defined, together with any adjuncts they may have. Thus in the sentence "The ploughman homeward plods his weary way," the phrase "the ploughman" may be said to be the subject and the phrase "homeward plods his weary way" the predicate; or the noun "ploughman" alone may be said to be the subject and the verb "plods" the predicate.

Subjunctive. See **Mode** and also **Indicative.**

Subordinate clause. See **Clause.**

Subordinate sentence-element. See **Sentence-element.**

Substantive. A substantive is a word by which, as by a name, some person or thing is called; *e.g.*, *man*, *house*, *happiness*, *beauty*, *song*, *speech*, *Jupiter*, *Charlemagne*, *he*, *she*. A few substantives are called **pronouns**; these are as follows: *I*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, *it*, and their compounds ending in *self* or *selves*; *this*, *that*; *who*, *what*, *which*, *whether*, and their compounds ending in *ever*, or *soever*; *each*, *either*, *neither*, *some*, *any*, *many*, *few*, *all*, *both*, *aught*, *naught*, *such*, *other*, *one*, *none*, and a few others. The pronouns are divided into five classes: personal, demonstrative, interrogative, relative, and indefinite pronouns (see these headings in the Vocabulary). All substantives other than pronouns are called **nouns.** — The declension of typical nouns and of the principal pronouns that are inflected is shown in the following tables:

DECLENSION OF NOUNS

	Singular	*Plural*
Nom.	boy	boys
Poss.	boy's	boys'
Obj.	boy	boys
Nom.	man	men
Poss.	man's	men's
Obj.	man	men

DECLENSION OF PRONOUNS

	Singular	*Plural*
Nom.	I	we
Poss.	my, mine	our, ours
Obj.	me	us

	Singular	*Plural*
Nom.	thou	ye, you
Poss.	thy, thine	your, yours
Obj.	thee	you
Nom.	he	they
Poss.	his	their, theirs
Obj.	him	them
Nom.	she	they
Poss.	her, hers	their, theirs
Obj.	her	them
Nom.	it	they
Poss.	its	their, theirs
Obj.	it	them
Nom.	who	who
Poss.	whose	whose
Obj.	whom	whom

A substantive may be used syntactically in the following ways (which are explained in this Vocabulary under the appropriate headings): (1) as a subject, (2) as a predicate substantive, (3) as an appositive, (4) as a possessive substantive, (5) as the object of a verb, (6) as the object of a preposition, (7) as an adverbial substantive, and (8) as an absolute substantive.

Substantive clause. A clause may be used as the subject of a verb (*e.g.*, "*That he is a scholar* is certain"); as the object of a verb (*e.g.*, "I know *that he is a scholar*); as the object of a preposition (*e.g.*, "There is no doubt as to *whether he is a scholar*"); as a predicate substantive (*e.g.*, "The truth is *that he is a scholar*"); as an appositive (*e.g.*, "This is certain, —*that he is a scholar*"); as an adverbial substantive (*e.g.*, "I am sure *that he is a scholar*); and as an absolute substantive (*e.g.* "Granted *that he is a scholar*, he may yet be mistaken"). A clause used in one of these ways is a substantive clause.

Superlative. See **Comparison.**

Syntactic. See **Syntax.**

Syntax. The relations that words, when they are combined in discourse, bear to one another (*e.g.*, the relation of "he" to "goes" in the sentence "He goes," or of "carpenter" to "Nelson," in the sentence "Nelson, the carpenter, is here") are called syntactic relations, or collectively syntax. Syntactic relations comprise (1) the relations a single word may bear to another word or to a group of words (*e.g.*, the relation of a subject to a verb, of an adjective to a substantive, of a noun to an adjective-phrase, of a vocative substantive to a sentence); and (2) the relations a predication may bear to another predication (*viz.*, the relation between a principal and a dependent clause and the relation between coördinate clauses).

Tense. The several sets of forms and combinations that a verb has when it represents action as occurring at different points of time are called its tenses. Of these sets there are six, called respectively the **present tense**, the **past tense**, the **future tense**, the **perfect tense**, the **past-perfect tense**, and the **future-perfect tense**. The tenses of a typical verb are shown on pages 213 ff.

Transitive. A verb representing an action that necessarily affects some person or thing in such a way that the name of that person or thing may be made the direct object of the verb, is called a **transitive verb**; *e.g.*, *love*, *hate*, *have*, *carry*, *build*. A verb representing an action of such a kind that a direct object cannot logically be used with the verb is called an **intransitive verb**; *e.g.*, *stand*, *arise*, *be*, *come*, *whimper*, *bark*, *quarrel*. Many verbs may be used either transitively or intransitively; *e.g.*, "The fire burns brightly" ("burns" is intransitive); "He burns the paper" ("burns" is transitive); "The corn has grown" ("has grown" is intransitive); "He has grown a beard" ("has grown" is transitive).

Verb. A word used to assert an action, a condition, or the undergoing of an action; *e.g.*, *stand*, *strike*, *choose*, *be*, *become*, *remain*, *suffer*, *undergo*.

The various inflections and combinations (see **Voice**, **Mode**, **Tense**, **Person**, and **Number**) of a typical verb are shown in the table on pages 213–218. The words *I*, *thou*, *he*, *we*, *you*, *they*, and *if* are inserted merely to show the way in which the forms they precede are used; they should not be regarded as necessary parts of those forms, for they are not parts at all. Words inclosed in parentheses are variants of the words they follow.

Vocative substantive. A substantive used in direct address. See **Direct address**.

Voice. A verb is said to be in the **active voice** when it asserts that the person or thing represented by the subject is, does, or undergoes something; *e.g.*, "He strikes," "He heard," "I see." A verb is said to be in the **passive voice** when it asserts that something is done to the person or thing represented by the subject; *e.g.*, "He is struck," "He was heard," "I am seen." With one exception all the passive forms of any verb are composed of the several forms of the auxiliary *to be*, and the past participle of the principal verb; the one exception is the past participle itself. See the table opposite.

Vowel. The letters *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, and *u* are vowels. The letters *b*, *c*, *d*, *f*, *g*, *h*, *j*, *k*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *p*, *q*, *r*, *s*, *t*, *v*, *x*, and *z* are consonants. *W* when used as in *weak*, and *y* when used as in *young*, are consonants; *w* when used as in *how*, and *y* when used as in *try* are vowels.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB TO TAKE[1]

PRINCIPAL PARTS: take, took, taken

Indicative mode

ACTIVE VOICE

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
PRESENT TENSE	**SIMPLE**	
	1. I take	we take
	2. thou takest	you take
	3. he takes (taketh)	they take
	EMPHATIC	
	1. I do take	we do take
	2. thou dost take	you do take
	3. he does (doth) take	they do take
	PROGRESSIVE	
	1. I am taking	we are taking
	2. thou art taking	you are taking
	3. he is taking	they are taking
PAST TENSE	**SIMPLE**	
	1. I took	we took
	2. thou tookest	you took
	3. he took	they took
	EMPHATIC	
	1. I did take	we did take
	2. thou didst take	you did take
	3. he did take	they did take
	PROGRESSIVE	
	1. I was taking	we were taking
	2. thou wast (wert) taking	you were taking
	3. he was taking	they were taking
FUTURE TENSE	**SIMPLE**	
	1. I shall (will) take	we shall (will) take
	2. thou wilt (shalt) take	you will (shall) take
	3. he will (shall) take	they will (shall) take
	PROGRESSIVE	
	I shall (will) be taking, etc.	

PASSIVE VOICE

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. I am taken	we are taken
2. thou art taken	you are taken
3. he is taken	they are taken
1. I was taken	we were taken
2. thou wast (wert) taken	you were taken
3. he was taken	they were taken
I shall (will) be taken, etc.	

[1] See the explanatory remarks under **Verb**.

	ACTIVE VOICE		PASSIVE VOICE
	Indicative mode — continued		
PERFECT TENSE	SINGULAR	PLURAL	
	SIMPLE		
	1. I have taken	we have taken	I have been taken, etc.
	2. thou hast taken	you have taken	
	3. he has (hath) taken	they have taken	
	PROGRESSIVE		
	I have been taking, etc.		
PAST-PERFECT TENSE	SIMPLE		
	1. I had taken	we had taken	I had been taken, etc.
	2. thou hadst taken	you had taken	
	3. he had taken	they had taken	
	PROGRESSIVE		
	I had been taking, etc.		
FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE	SIMPLE		
	I shall (will) have taken, etc.		I shall (will) have been taken, etc.
	PROGRESSIVE		
	I shall (will) have been taking, etc.		
	Subjunctive mode		
PRESENT TENSE	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR / PLURAL
	SIMPLE		
	1. if I take	if we take	1. if I be taken — if we be taken
	2. if thou take	if you take	2. if thou be taken — if you be taken
	3. if he take	if they take	3. if he be taken — if they be taken
	EMPHATIC		
	1. if I do take	if we do take	
	2. if thou do take	if you do take	
	3. if he do take	if they do take	
	PROGRESSIVE		
	1. if I be taking	if we be taking	
	2. if thou be taking	if you be taking	
	3. if he be taking	if they be taking	

Subjunctive mode — continued

	ACTIVE VOICE		PASSIVE VOICE	
	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
PAST TENSE	**SIMPLE** 1. if I took 2. if thou took 3. if he took	if we took if you took if they took	1. if I were taken 2. if thou were (wert) taken 3. if he were taken	if we were taken if you were taken if they were taken
	EMPHATIC 1. if I did take 2. if thou did take 3. if he did take	if we did take if you did take if they did take		
	PROGRESSIVE 1. if I were taking 2. if thou were (wert) taking 3. if he were taking	if we were taking if you were taking if they were taking		
FUTURE TENSE	[The future subjunctive is exactly like the future indicative, except that *shall* and *will* are unchanged throughout; *e.g.*, *if thou will take, if thou shall be taken,* etc.]			
PERFECT TENSE	[The perfect subjunctive is exactly like the perfect indicative, except that *have* is unchanged throughout; *e.g.*, *if thou have taken, if he have been taken,* etc.]			
PAST-PERFECT TENSE	[The past-perfect subjunctive is exactly like the past-perfect indicative, except that *had* is unchanged throughout; *e.g.*, *if thou had taken, if thou had been taken,* etc.]			
FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE	[The future-perfect subjunctive is exactly like the future-perfect indicative, except that *shall* and *will* are unchanged throughout; *e.g.*, *if thou will have taken, if thou shall have been taken,* etc.]			

	ACTIVE VOICE		PASSIVE VOICE
	Conditional mode [1]		
PRESENT TENSE	SINGULAR	PLURAL	
	SIMPLE		
	1. I should (would) take	we should (would) take	I should (would) be taken, etc.
	2. thou wouldst (shouldst) take	you would (should) take	
	3. he would (should) take	they would (should) take	
	PROGRESSIVE		
	I should (would) be taking, etc.		
PERFECT TENSE	SIMPLE		
	I should (would) have taken, etc.		I should (would) have been taken, etc.
	PROGRESSIVE		
	I should (would) have been taking, etc.		
	Potential mode [1]		
PRESENT TENSE	SINGULAR	PLURAL	
	SIMPLE		
	1. I may *or* can take	we may *or* can take	I may *or* can be taken, etc.
	2. thou mayst *or* canst take	you may *or* can take	
	3. he may *or* can take	they may *or* can take	
	PROGRESSIVE		
	I may *or* can be taking, etc.		
PAST TENSE	SIMPLE		
	1. I might *or* could take	we might *or* could take	I might *or* could be taken, etc.
	2. thou mightst *or* couldst take	you might *or* could take	
	3. he might *or* could take	they might *or* could take	
	PROGRESSIVE		
	I might *or* could be taking, etc.		

[1] See the footnote on page 205.

	ACTIVE VOICE	PASSIVE VOICE
	Potential mode — continued	
PERFECT TENSE	SIMPLE I may *or* can have taken, etc. PROGRESSIVE I may *or* can have been taking, etc.	I may *or* can have been taken, etc.
PAST-PERFECT TENSE	SIMPLE I might *or* could have taken, etc. PROGRESSIVE I might *or* could have been taking, etc.	I might *or* could have been taken, etc.
	Obligative mode [1]	
PRESENT TENSE	SINGULAR / PLURAL SIMPLE 1. I must, *or* ought to, take / we must, *or* ought to, take 2. thou must, *or* oughtest to, take / you must, *or* ought to, take 3. he must, *or* ought to, take / they must, *or* ought to, take PROGRESSIVE I must, *or* ought to, be taking, etc.	I must, *or* ought to, be taken, etc.
PERFECT TENSE	SIMPLE I must, *or* ought to, have taken, etc. PROGRESSIVE I must, *or* ought to, have been taking, etc.	I must, *or* ought to, have been taken, etc.
	Imperative mode	
	SIMPLE: take EMPHATIC: do take PROGRESSIVE: be taking	be taken

[1] See the footnote on page 205.

	ACTIVE VOICE	PASSIVE VOICE
	Infinitive mode	
PRESENT TENSE	SIMPLE INFINITIVE: to take PROGRESSIVE INFINITIVE: to be taking GERUND: taking	INFINITIVE: to be taken GERUND: being taken
PERFECT TENSE	SIMPLE INFINITIVE: to have taken PROGRESSIVE INFINITIVE: to have been taking GERUND: having taken	INFINITIVE: to have been taken GERUND: having been taken
	Participial mode	
PRESENT TENSE	taking	being taken
PAST TENSE	[There is no past participle in the active voice.]	taken
PERFECT TENSE	SIMPLE: having taken PROGRESSIVE: having been taking	having been taken

APPENDIX C

A List of Words that are often Mispronounced

In the case of a few words in the following list, pronunciations different from those indicated in the right-hand column are admitted by some authorities; these words are marked with an asterisk (*). The pronunciations given opposite such words are those favored by the great majority of lexicographers. In the case of all the words not marked with an asterisk, the pronunciations indicated are the only correct ones.

The accentual and diacritical marks are not intended to give an exhaustive description of the pronunciation of each word, but only to point out common errors. Of the signs that are not self-explanatory the meanings are shown in the following table:

ă is pronounced like *a* in *at.*
ā is pronounced like *a* in *mate.*
ȧ is pronounced like *a* in *climate.*
ä is pronounced like *a* in *arm.*
ȁ is pronounced like *a* in *ask.*
ĕ is pronounced like *e* in *men.*
ē is pronounced like *ee* in *see.*
ė is pronounced like *e* in the first syllable of *event.*
ē is pronounced like *e* in *fern.*
ĭ is pronounced like *i* in *tin.*
ī is pronounced like *i* in *wine.*
ŏ is pronounced like *o* in *lot.*
ō is pronounced like *o* in *host.*
ŭ is pronounced like *u* in *bun.*
ū is pronounced like *u* in *use.*
ú is pronounced like *u* in *unite.*
u̇ is pronounced like *u* in *bull.*
o͞o is pronounced like *oo* in *tool.*
o͝o is pronounced like *oo* in *foot.*
ou is pronounced as in *thou.*
zh is pronounced like *z* in *azure.*

Words often accented on the wrong syllable

	Correct pronunciation
abdomen*	ab dō′men
acclimate	ac clī′mate
acumen	a cū′men
address	ad dress′
admirable	ad′mirable
adult	a dult′
alias	ā′lias
ally*	al ly′
alternate (adjective and noun)	al tĕr′nate
applicable	ap′plicable
apropos	ăp′rō pō′
brigand	brĭg′and
choleric	kŏl′eric
condolence	con dō′lence
construe*	con′strue
contour*	con tour′
cuckoo	kŏŏk′o͞o
despicable	des′picable
exquisite	ex′quisite
extant*	ex′tant
formidable	for′midable
gondola	gon′dola
grimace	gri māce′
harass	hăr′ass
Herculean	Her cū′le an
hospitable	hos′pitable
illustrate*	il lus′trate
impious	im′pĭ ous
incognito	in cog′nito
incomparable	in com′parable
inevitable	in ev′itable
inquiry	in quī′ry
lamentable	lam′entable

	Correct pronunciation
misconstrue*	mis con′strue
obligatory*	ob′ligatory
pariah*	pa′riah
peremptory*	pĕr′emptory
pianist*	pi an′ist
piquant.	pēk′ant *or* pīk′ant
precedence	prē cēd′ence
precedent (adjective)	prē cēd′ent
precedent (noun)	prĕs′ e dent
presage (noun)	prē′sage *or* prĕs′age
presage (verb)	pre sāge′
sepulture	sĕp′ulture
vagary	vȧ gā′ry
Adonis	A dō′nis
alma mater	alma mā ter
altercation*	ăltercation
amenable	a mē′nable
apparatus	apparātus
apricot	āpricot
Basil	Băz′il
biographical	bīographical
biography	bīography
bouquet	bo͞o kā′ *or* bo͞o′kā (not "bō-")
brooch*	brōch
brougham	bro͞o′am *or* bro͞om
brusque*	bro͞osk
cantaloupe*	can′ta lo͞op
chock-full	Pronounced as spelled; not "chuck-full."
choler	kŏl′er
Cleopatra	Cleopātra
clique	klēk
constable	kŭn stable

Words in which certain vowels are often mispronounced

	Correct pronunciation
coupon	kōō′pon
courtesan*	kŭr te zan
creek	krēk
crotch	Pronounced as spelled; not "crutch."
culinary	kū′linary
defalcate	dē făl′ cate (not "-fawl-")
defalcation	dē făl cation *or* dĕf ăl cation (not "-fawl-")
demise	de mīz′
extol*	ex tŏl′
gape* (verb)	gāp
garrulous	găr ru lous (not "gār yulous")
genealogy	jĕn e ălogy *or* jē ne ălogy (not "-ology")
genuine	jen u ĭn (not "-īn")
ghoul	gōōl
gratis	grā tis
hearth	hărth
heinous	hā nous
hoof	hōōf
implacable	im plā′cable
Italian	Ĭ tal yan (not "Ī-")
joust	jŭst *or* jōōst
jugular	jū gū lar (not "jŭg-")
literature	lit er a tūre (not "-toor")
mineralogy	min er ăl ogy (not "-ology")
nape	nāp
Pall Mall	Pĕl Mĕl
panegyric	pan e jĭr ic *or* pan e jĕr ic
premise (noun)	prĕm′iss
premise (verb)	prē mīz′
presentation	prĕz entation
pretty	prĭt ty

	Correct pronunciation	
programme	prō′grăm (not "-grum")	
quay	kē	
regular	reg yu lar	
rinse	Pronounced as spelled; not "rense."	
roily	Pronounced as spelled; not "rī ly."	
roof	rōōf	
root	rōōt	
route*	rōōt	
sacrilegious	sac ri lē′jus (not "-religious")	
salve*	săv	
simultaneous*	sīmultaneous	
sinecure	sī ne cure	
sleek	slēk	
slough	slou	
status	stā tus	
trow	trō	
virulent	vĭr′ u lent (not "-yulent")	
xylophone	zī lophone	
zoology	zō ŏl ogy (not "zōō-")	
aversion	a ver shun (not "-zhun")	Words in which certain consonants are often mispronounced
designate*	dĕs ignate (not "dez-")	
excursion*	ex cur shun (not "-zhun")	
flaccid	flak′sid (See Rule 153, note.)	
has (in expressions like *He has to go*)	hăz (not "hăss")	
have (in expressions like *I have to go*)	hăv (not "hăf")	
oleo-margarine	The *g* is hard, as in *get*. (See Rule 153, note.)	
partner	Pronounced as spelled; not "pard ner."	

		Correct pronunciation
	Persia	Per sha (not "-zha")
	Persian	Per shan (not "-zhan")
	turgid	tur jid (See Rule 153, note.)
	used (when followed by *to*)	ūzd (not "ūst")
	version	ver shun (not "-zhun")
	with	The *th* is pronounced as in *thus*.
Words, from which certain sounds are often incorrectly omitted	auxiliary	aux il i ary
	February	Feb ru ary
	Messrs.*	měsh yĕrz *or* měs′yĕrz ("Messerz" is wholly unauthorized.)
	piano-forte	piano-for′te
	pumpkin	pump kin
Words to which an additional sound is often incorrectly added	almond*	ä mond
	athlete	ath′lete
	athletic	ath let′ic
	buoy	bwoi *or* boi
	casualty	caz′u al ty (not "-al′i ty")
	cerement	sēr ment
	column	kol um (not "-yum")
	conduit	kŏn′dit *or* kŭn′dit
	daguerreotype	da ger′o type
	elm	One syllable.
	falcon*	faw con
	grievous	grēv′ous
	mischievous	mis′chĕv ous
	often	of en
	poignant*	poi′nant
	salmon	să mon
	ad infinitum	ad in fi nī′tum

	Correct pronunciation
charivari	sha rē′va rē′ (not "shiveree")
debut	dā′bu
dishabille*	dis′a bĭl′
dishevel	di shev′el
dramatis personæ	dram′a tis per sō′nē
finis	fī′nis
foyer (*e.g.*, the *foyer* of a theater)	fwà′yā′
gaol	jāl
irrelevant	Pronounced as spelled; not "irrevelant."
larynx	lăr′inx *or* lā′rinx (not "lar nix")
posthumous	pŏst′humous *or* pŏs′tumous
rendezvous	rĕn de voo *or* rŏn de voo
sarsaparilla	sär sa pa ril la (not "săss-parilla")
sough*	sŭf
viz.	A sort of arbitrary sign for the Latin word *videlicet* (pronounced vi dĕl′i set). In reading *viz.* aloud, say either "videlicet" or "namely" (the English equivalent of *videlicet*); do not say "vizz."
vaudeville	vōd′vĭl

Words often mispronounced in various ways

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NUMBERS REFER TO PAGES

Explanations of grammatical and other technical terms are in general not cited below, since they can easily be found in the alphabetical vocabulary on pp. 196 ff.

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